trends in education

Spring issue

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Multicultural Education (2)

The Open University

Part-time Higher Education

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Television and Education

The Anonymous Classroom

International Cooperation in Education

Department of Education and Science
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As a result of the review of Civil Service manpower carried out last year it has been decided that 'Trends in Education' should cease publication. The summer issue ('Trends 2/80'), which will contain articles on the teaching of mathematics, will therefore be the last. Money from unexpired subscriptions will be refunded.

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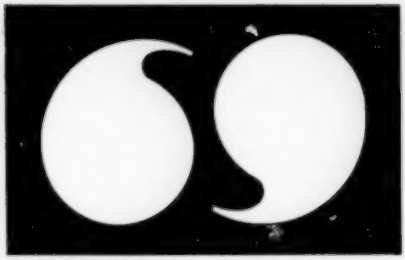

Talking Points

Too much of a good thing?

It's not so much the lack of information. It's knowing what to do with all the information that you come across.

Last year the Royal Society/British Academy Committee on Learned Societies met twice. It reviewed the lessons to be learned from a very successful conference on the administration of learned societies which was attended by some 250 officers of smaller learned societies. And it thought about the desirability of sponsoring more smaller and more specialized meetings. That much we learn from the annual report of the Royal Society. Laudably the Society has decided that 'in the interests of making the Society's activities more widely known and of reducing the size of the Year Book, the annual report should be published separately and presented in a more easily readable form'.

Easily readable it certainly is and the RS Council is to be congratulated. But the publication raises acutely the question: For whose benefit? In an age of public accountability it is nice to know on what activities the Society's £4·5 million income (60 per cent from public funds) was spent. And in an age of grass-roots discussion, the future management of the Aldabra atoll by the newly-founded Seychelles Islands Foundation may be worth cursory consideration in the saloon bar of the Royal Oak where more publicity might also be given to the letter sent out to draw attention to the work of the Scientific Relief Committee. All fascinating stuff. But that information about the Learned Societies in conference is still a worry. It is surely useful, but how? Could the next smaller and more specialized meeting come up with some tips on raising the status of the Philatelic Club?

That's the trouble with society today. Not only do we demand information – we have to look at its relevance.

Multicultural education

In this second issue to focus on multicultural education, Trends in Education *examines the linguistic problems and advantages of the bilingual child whose first language is not English and describes what some British schools are doing in this area. It also includes an example of how one minority group—the Chinese—is coping with its own problems in its own way.*

Trends 1980/1

Bilingual children

Jane Miller
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For a long time research into bilingualism operated within the assumption that bilingual children were likely to have problems at school. Welsh-speaking and French-speaking children in Wales and in Canada were seen to do less well than their monolingual (English-speaking) counterparts.* However, by the 1960s most of that research had been queried and even contradicted on the grounds that the tests used to establish the inferior attainment of bilingual children ignored both the social factors underlying the bilingual ones, and the effects on a child of speaking one language at home while learning (and being tested) in another one at school.

There had, as well, always been some people in Wales who were prepared to concede that knowing Welsh as well as English might be seen as providing the benefits of a cheap classical education – benefits, by the way, which were not queried. That is just one of the anomalies about attitudes to bilingualism. Learning a foreign language, and even one or two dead ones as well, has often been the *sine qua non* of a 'good' education. A child who picks up fluent French and Italian because, say, her father has been posted abroad is likely to be thought fortunate, at an advantage, even 'finished'. But a child with two or three non-European languages – in some of which he may be literate – could be regarded as quite literally languageless when he arrives to start his studies in an English school, where 'not a word of English' can often imply 'not a word'.

* See, for example, Jones W. R. *Bilingualism and Intelligence*. Cardiff: University of Wales Press, 1959 and Lambert W. E. 'A Social Psychology of Bilingualism' in J. B. Pride and Janet Holmes (editors). *Sociolinguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1972.

Resources not drawbacks

This paradoxical situation allows multi-lingualism and multi-dialectism to be drawbacks when they could be resources nationally and individually, and has wider implications for the teaching of English in school generally.

Claims have been made for the learning of a second language that go beyond the kinds of usefulness proposed for knowing, say, French or Latin. For instance, it is claimed that another language embodies, as it expresses, another culture, and that another culture introduces the possibility of critical detachment about one's own. Again, it is said that there are aspects of the nature of language that are often more easily learned through encountering a second language. Connected with this is the notion that the conscious mastery of a language is an intellectual discipline in itself. Recent research on Hebrew/English-speaking children* draws attention to some things that these children do better than their monolingual peers. Because they are earlier able to separate meaning from sound, they are also able to develop earlier what Margaret Donaldson has called 'a reflective awareness of language as a symbolic system'† which is a prerequisite for developing abstract thought and, by extension, literacy. Perhaps because the learning of language has required greater effort of them, these children are often more sensitive to the appropriateness of their speech and to the effect it produces on listeners. They also become aware earlier than most children of the structures within one particular language system that contrast with those of the other one. Even at those points where one language might be expected to interfere with the other, to overlap or create confusion, possibilities for particular insights were noticed, so that fusion rather than confusion worked to produce, at an earlier age, a sense of what languages generally consist of, get up to and are used for.

Unqualified good

In one sense it is all quite simple. Where a child grows up speaking more than one language or dialect, and those languages or dialects have equivalent status in his own and other people's eyes, and where the connections between those languages and their differences are shared, understood and made explicit, multi-lingualism can be an unqualified good. Andreas, for instance, is twelve. He came here from Cyprus four years ago and goes back for holidays. He speaks Greek for most of the time at home, but other members of his family also speak English and he is no longer aware of making conscious decisions about which language to speak on any particular occasion. He could read and write in Greek before he came to England, and he learned English in a school where it was assumed, rightly, that he was competent linguistically even if he did not know English, a school where his mother tongue was a respected one and where his teachers have come to rely on and to admire his success. He was lucky, perhaps, to embark on the second of his languages before he was in secondary school and to learn it principally through using it with children of his own age. As an example of bilingual advantages, he is ideal though hardly typical.

* Ben-Zeev, Sandra. 'Mechanisms by which Child Bilingualism Affects Understanding of Language and Cognitive Structures' in P. A. Hornby (editor). *Bilingualism, Psychological, Social and Educational Implications*, London: Academic Press, 1977.

† Donaldson, Margaret. *Children's Minds*. Fontana, 1978.

Inappropriate language

It is a characteristic irony that while the learning of languages can be an expensive business, nearly all those people in the world who grow up bilingual do so because their mother-tongue or dialect has associations with poverty and is therefore likely to be considered inappropriate for education and some kinds of employment. Many of the people who have come to live in England during the last twenty-five years speak either a dialect of English or another language altogether, which they are encouraged and in some cases are themselves all too ready to relinquish. Kulvinder at five is an entirely silent member of an infant school reception class. Her parents have decided to speak only English with her at home in order to help her transition to school. Their refusal to speak Punjabi may have implications about their view of themselves that go well beyond the danger of depriving their daughter of a language which is hers as well as theirs. Modern language teaching often makes good use of a temporary outlawing of the mother tongue. It is a strategy which assumes that sheer need to communicate is bound to power the acquisition of a new language as it has been thought, too simply, to power the acquisition of the first. Kulvinder's silence argues the case.

School language

The variety of ways in which children experience multi-lingualism is vast, ranging from a kind of *anomie* at one extreme to a quite special flexibility and effectiveness as a language user at the other. Somewhere between are all those children who leave their mother tongue at home and learn English at school. This can produce a damaging dividedness. A language learned and used only in school can seem to stand for passivity, acceptance and attentiveness, while its use may be constrained by rules and prohibitions that are able to obscure its vitality and its subtleties. Similarly, the home language may be relegated to the terrain of childhood, interesting only as the expression of a vestigial folk culture. The life of action and feeling, of experiences and what is directly known can become divorced from the world where language has become an instrument for generalization, organization and the assimilating of new ideas and knowledge.

There is a danger of that happening to any child, but the danger is much greater if the two selves, so to speak, operate in different languages. Cultural values can be distorted, polarized into what is quaint and half extinguished and what is practical, modern and remunerated. Many children are marooned between languages, forgetting one more rapidly than they acquire another. Meanwhile they may be regarded by teachers and by other children – ultimately, perhaps, by themselves – as being bereft of all the things which language stands for: intelligence, humour, daring, inventiveness, enthusiasm, discrimination and curiosity.* And without those qualities it is not easy to learn the new language which might enable these children to regain them.

Attitudes to languages

That many of the difficulties which exist for a multi-lingual child also exist for a multi-dialectal one is due to their being the product of attitudes to languages generally and to particular languages, rather than to their being inherent in multi-lingualism itself. They are especially difficult attitudes to grapple with because they are about

* There are good examples of this in Brown, Daphne M. *Mother Tongue to English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1979.

class and race and status, though they masquerade as value judgements and fine (even musical) discriminations.

Michelle's parents came here from St Lucia before she was born. The family speaks French Patois at home, and though she laughs at her parents' English she herself spoke some English by the time she was five and went to primary school. For most of the time she speaks like the other children in her class, a non-standard London dialect. When she is with her friends she shifts into London Jamaican, as they do. She says that she has never spoken Patois outside her home and that 'most West Indian people say that Patois is bad for young children to speak'. When she recalls and mimics her first teacher telling her, 'You're talking bad language, bad English', she assumes that her teacher meant that there was something wrong with her accent. She is also able to say fiercely: 'You should be able to speak Patois, Jamaican or English'. When Michelle assents to the disapproval her speech can elicit while defending her right to speak as she wants and needs to, she is expressing the sort of ambivalence many dialect speakers grow up with.

Michelle's English teacher has no views about her language except that her writing is 'weak in sentence structure'. Neither this teacher's comment nor the earlier one has been substantiated or explained to Michelle. She speaks, in fact, three languages: French Patois, non-standard English and London Jamaican. She is fluent and forceful in all three, makes easy shifts between them, stylish use of the incongruities produced by such shifts and is able, as well, to do an excellent imitation of Mrs Thatcher. It is worth remembering that whereas all non-standard English speakers are compelled to understand and sometimes to assume standard speech patterns, standard-English speakers are rarely required to do the reverse. Yet in spite of this rich language repertoire, Michelle, at twelve, has already been made aware that neither her speech nor her writing will quite do.

Educationally at risk

Neither bilingualism nor its advantages are new phenomena, so it is odd that children with the kinds of language repertoire we might envy should be regarded, in school terms, as educationally at risk. Definitions of what 'good' English might be are confused, perhaps because they issue from the view that English as a school subject is bound to concentrate on the written form. Assumptions about the intimate relation between written language and standard-English speech are fostered by an examination system which depends on a definition of English so exiguous as to exclude not just dialect, but speech of any kind. Such a definition will insist on a child knowing, above everything else, how to write and read a certain sort of English prose; a sort which is not easily learned by anyone whose speech is under suspicion. The best examples of expository or imaginative prose draw vitally upon the spoken language. The belief that a child can learn to produce even the most modest versions of such prose while his speech is dismissed, even perhaps excoriated, is likely to be doomed. We cannot, surely, be wanting children to 'talk like a book'.

Good English

The issues raised by the bilingual child in school, like the issues raised by so many aspects of education in a multicultural society, are able to illuminate far more than local or individual problems. They take us back to questions about language development and the relation of written language to speech, to the arbitrariness of what is valued by incorporation into the curriculum or devalued by neglect, and they invite us finally to consider the implications of holding

to a notion of 'good' English which has, conventionally, relied on descriptions of what it is not rather than of what it is.*

* This article is a shorter version of the author's chapter entitled 'How do you spell Gujarati, Sir?' Leonard Michaels and Christopher Ricks (editors). *The State of the Language*. California: University of California Press, 1980.

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An experiment into mother-tongue teaching

Linda Chapman
Headteacher, Eastwood First School, Keighley

Dr Olaf Rees from the School of Education at Bradford University, Mr F. Fitzpatrick from Bradford College and staff from the Advisory Service of the Bradford Metropolitan District Council launched a two-year cooperative research programme into mother-tongue and English teaching in July 1978. The programme was aimed at a group of rising five-year-olds, whose parents were of Asian origin and who were living in the Bradford area. The idea was to make substantial use of a child's mother tongue, as well as English, in the classroom situation. All the children were to be September 1978 entrants into school with little or no ability in the use of the English language, and whose mother tongue was Punjabi (or regional variants thereof). Information would then be gathered on how this method of teaching facilitated a child's adaptation to school, his acquisition of English and his general cognitive development.

Participation

Two schools in the Bradford area were selected to take part in the project – an infant centre and Eastwood First School (78 per cent of the children at the latter are of Asian origin). At Eastwood thirty children were chosen to take part, fifteen of whom were of Asian origin and formed one subgroup; the remainder, who were of English and Asian origin (including three Bengali children), formed a control group. The progress of these two groups of children in cognitive development and social use of language was monitored throughout the year. It is hoped that the research being carried out during the academic year 1979/80 will put forward recommendations about the feasibility/desirability of provision being made for mother-tongue teaching.

Parental approval was sought for each child's participation in the project. Each parent was approached to find out about home background, attitudes towards learning English, language used in the home and aspirations for their children's futures. These interviews were conducted in the mother tongue. Only one parent was unwilling to let his child participate in the project (interestingly, a girl whose parents use English as the sole 'home language'). All the families of the English children in the control group were visited and expressed the general feeling that they were perfectly happy to have their children involved in this experiment, provided that it would not hinder their progress.

Curriculum

Clearly one of the major aims of those schools taking children of Asian origin is to teach English as a second language. In Bradford non-English-speaking children attend infant centres for at least one term (and up to six) until they achieve a level of oral English which will enable them to cope in the First Schools. Eastwood First School is an exception to this policy; children come in directly at nursery or reception level. Because this involves teaching of English as a second language, the children necessarily become bilingual. Under most circumstances they continue to use their mother tongue at home and in most situations where an adult is not present (for example, in play), but the language of school is English.

Present curricula in schools seldom take account of the child's mother tongue. Clearly a child of Asian origin coming into school under 'normal' circumstances is at once faced with marked communication difficulties with both his teacher and the indigenous members of his peer group, and, therefore, has a great deal of social and cultural adjustment to make. It would be to the child's great advantage if during at least the initial period he was in school he could have someone who spoke his own language with whom to relate. This is seldom possible because of schools' present language policies, and the shortage of suitably qualified mother-tongue speakers.

It has been noted, as a direct result of the project, that having two Mirpuri Punjabi-speaking members of staff has benefited many of the children in the school and not only those involved in either subgroup. They have settled much more quickly into the routine of school life than have previous intakes. It has also been noted that other, older children, who have been wont to acquiesce passively, have been much more forthcoming in their approach to school life.

Esteem

The use of Punjabi in school assemblies and gatherings, as well as in the classroom, has given it greater esteem in the eyes of both the children of Asian origin and the indigenous children. And if we believe that it is a prerequisite of progress in general education and social development for a child to feel confident and to have self-esteem, then we must further believe that by teaching in the mother tongue we are helping to develop the child's skills in learning.

Many teachers still know nothing (or at best a little) of the mother tongue and cultural patterns of the children, and little attempt has been made to bridge the gulf that exists between home and school. If, as the starting point, we recognize that it is important for young children to enter school feeling that their language and culture have an important place, then it would seem logical that the mother-tongue project should be used, wherever possible, at nursery level.

It would also enhance the esteem in which these children were held in teacher/pupil and pupil/pupil relationships if a knowledge of different cultural patterns were to become an accepted part of the everyday life of the school. Although even nursery-age children may enter school with certain prejudices, teachers may be able to channel these along different lines from the outset.

Working methods

We decided to base our working methods, types of activities and range of cognitive and social objectives on existing first school practices. The English-language teaching was to make use of materials already developed for Bradford schools (Keystone). The work undertaken in the Mirpuri Punjabi medium was to be comparable in content, length and standard to that undertaken in the English medium by indigenous children of a similar age group.

So that true comparisons might be made between the two groups there were two English-speaking and two Punjabi-speaking staff (a teacher and a nursery nurse in each case). Half the teaching time of the week was used for teaching in the English medium, in which the whole group of thirty children was regarded as a single unit, and all four staff worked with all the children on a rotational basis, so that total overall contact was made between adults and children. The activities undertaken followed, as exactly as possible, the 'normal' range of activities to be found in a typical school week. In the other half of the week the children were divided into their subgroups to work separately – one group in the English medium, the other in Punjabi. Great efforts were made to ensure that a similar programme was followed by both groups, though this was sometimes difficult. There was at no time, of course, any written work in Punjabi.

The timetable was initially drawn up in periods of approximately one hour, and work was on a rotational basis. After some time the staff involved felt that these periods were not long enough, so the periods were rearranged to take up half of the school day. This enabled the staff to make more concentrated progress and to get to know the needs of the children more fully.

Evaluation

Clearly, since the evaluation of the research findings is still under way, I can only very generally outline the findings and the methods used in the collection of data.

Towards the end of the project, teachers' and parents' attitudes to the efficacy of this type of project were sought through questionnaire and verbal contact with teachers. Teachers reported fortnightly on the progress made by individual children in both subgroups. In addition, the children were regularly monitored by the research team, using speech recordings of continuing activities and regular observations of the social behaviour of the children in different academic and non-academic situations.

Two tests designed to indicate the level of non-verbal abilities, school achievement and language use were administered mid-project and in July 1979. (These tests were based on the Porch Index of Communicative Ability.)* The results of these tests and the other information-seeking exercises I have outlined above have not, as yet, been completed.

The second year

Although the in-school monitoring has now ceased, apart from a follow-up test planned for later this year, the Bradford Authority has decided to finance a continuation of the scheme for at least a further year. It is unfortunate that both the Punjabi-speaking teacher and the nursery nurse have left us, but the teacher has been replaced and the project continues. The same group of children is being used this year. It is interesting to note that these children are no further behind in their academic progress (in English) than their peers in the other subgroup, despite the fact that they have had half their teaching in Punjabi. When the replacement nursery nurse is appointed, it is envisaged that she will be able to work in the mother tongue with a group of nursery children.

* The Porch Index of Communicative Ability devised by Dr Bruce E. Porch in 1967 consists of sixteen tests for children of kindergarten level or below and twenty tests for older children.

One of the concerns we feel, and in the absence of findings about the taped transcripts it can only be a feeling, is that the strict structuring of last year's programme, and the efforts we made to run exactly parallel courses in both subgroups, caused the children to be insufficiently stretched in the use of the Punjabi language. This year we are endeavouring to overcome this by using the mother tongue to enrich and develop their oral language, and by looking at the children's use of language and the kind of meanings they are able to express. We plan to evaluate the way children use language employing the classifications that were suggested by Joan Tough in *Listening to Children Talking*.*

'Home language'

One of the difficulties the Punjabi-speaking staff experienced last year with the Mirpuri Punjabi language was the way children used some English words in place of their Punjabi equivalents. These words have obviously been adopted, and are in common usage in the home, so the decision was made not to 'unteach' them but to accept what is now the children's 'home language'. It might appear, therefore, that the term 'home language' is more acceptable than mother tongue, when deciding which particular dialect form should be used. If we are going to go deeper into the field of mother-tongue teaching we shall need to consider more fully what the elements of the 'home language' are. This may be contrary to the common view that mother-tongue teaching should be for language maintenance, but at this stage our primary aim is to ease the transition into the school system and develop cognitive skills.

I would like to thank those who set up the mother-tongue programme at Eastwood, and who have worked, and are still working, very hard to analyse the information they have gleaned.†

* Tough, Joan. *Listening to Children Talking*. London: Ward Lock, 1976.

† The views expressed in this article are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect those of the project team.

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The educational reception of the boat children in the United Kingdom

Louise A. Morris
Formerly Language Organizer, the British Council for Aid to Refugees

There are now about 7,000 Vietnamese refugees living in the United Kingdom. The early arrivals consisted of small groups of families and friends, but in October 1978 the pattern changed dramatically when 346 refugees rescued by a British ship in the South China Sea were flown to Britain for resettlement. In January 1979 the government agreed to accept a quota of 1,500 boat refugees, and in July came the decision to accept a further 10,000 refugees from Hong Kong.

Three distinct groups

The Vietnamese boat people come from three distinct groups: the ethnic Chinese, or Hoa, from North Vietnam; the ethnic Chinese from South Vietnam, and the ethnic Vietnamese from the South. For some families this is the second time they have become refugees, having previously fled the Communist North in 1954. The refugees say they left Vietnam to find a 'free' country, and to secure a better education and future for their children. Many had originally hoped to join relatives and friends in the USA, Canada, France and Australia, but highly selective processing and long periods of waiting and uncertainty have frequently meant the abandonment of such hopes.

The younger children did not know they were leaving Vietnam until the day of departure; if they were told anything, it was that they were going to visit a grandmother or an uncle in another town. For them the emotional shock of the sudden departure and the hazardous sea journey has been heightened by the loss of everything that was familiar to them. Last year, a nursery teacher was asked by her local education authority to set up a class for twenty-six infants who, with their families, had survived many days at sea amid hysteria and despair in a disintegrating fishing boat. After drifting through gales, they were finally rescued by a British freighter: ropes were tied around their waists, and they were hauled along steel cables to the rescue ship. The teacher, describing the children's first days at school, said: 'All were in a state of shock. Though none was ill, many were very low in vitality . . . Shock muffled the children like a thick fog. The first week passed in a subdued, quiet orderliness that was really frightening'.

Education in Vietnam

Since the time Vietnam became independent at the end of the Second World War, its education system has undergone enormous changes. From being restricted to the education of a few, it came to involve almost the total population. The curriculum was heavily academic, lessons were geared towards rote learning and repetition, and teaching methods were formal and disciplined. Classes consisted of fifty to sixty pupils, on average, and there was little attempt to encourage any individual or creative learning. Similarly, play was not seen as part of the learning process – children 'deserved' to play only on completion of all tasks and duties.

Following the changeover to the new Communist regime in April 1975, the schools were closed for five months. Teachers and older pupils attended compulsory political education classes, and younger pupils carried out 'voluntary' community tasks. When the schools re-opened, there were changes in both staff and syllabus. This disruption of the children's education was increased by the journey at sea, and the ensuing months spent idle, either in a refugee camp, or on a crowded ship that was prevented from landing.

Type of provision

From the outset, the education of the Vietnamese children has been the responsibility of the local education authorities, although in a few cases there has been special provision by the voluntary agencies involved in the resettlement. The most decisive factor in the type of educational provision has been the size and location of the reception centres. These may be located in big cities, or in the country; they may cater for a group of thirty, or for 500. In the larger centres, the children have attended special schools set up on site, while those from smaller centres have attended local language centres whenever possible, or gone straight into local schools.

School usually starts as soon as medical checks, distribution of clothes and so on have taken place. During the first month, however, children are quite likely to disappear from class at a moment's notice to be fitted for shoes or glasses, or for a visit to the dentist. One unlucky nursery group even had their first English Christmas party interrupted for vaccinations by a team from the health clinic.

'I want school'

The children are very keen to start school. Whether the classes are to take place inside or outside the centres, teachers have generally tried to spend the first few days at the centres chatting to parents and children, getting to know names and faces, tasting Vietnamese food, and starting to build up a relationship of trust. As the Vietnamese have a very personalized concept of authority, this introductory activity has proved very worthwhile. There is, however, one group who do not enjoy the teachers' early visits: the sixteen- and seventeen-year-olds are bitterly disappointed when they learn that they will not be able to attend school in Britain. Their pleas of 'Teacher, I want school' are met by explanations that they will have to attend the adult language classes, and that in a few years, when they can speak English, they might be able to attend a college of further education. For many, the frustration is heightened by the fact that they were sent from Vietnam as the sole representative of their family in its bid for freedom and a better education. Families who could only pay the price of one seat on a boat would often send their eldest son to represent them.

Initial planning

In each new reception centre the initial planning stages have varied enormously – some areas have had ample time to appoint staff, equip classrooms, and collect materials, but more typical is the situation described here by the headmaster of a school in a large reception centre:

> 'The situation was a very difficult one as the refugees were arriving at the camp in large numbers, staff had not been appointed, nor was the available accommodation ready for use. In addition, little was known about the content and level of attainment, and the actual numbers we would have to deal with.'

In another centre – a disused army camp where there were no toilets on or near the school premises – half-hour breaks between sessions had to be introduced to allow the children to get back to their huts to use the toilets!

One thing that has not been a problem has been the recruitment of staff – most centres have been able to employ at least a few teachers with experience of teaching English as a second language, and in addition some have had the valuable experience of working with Chinese children – in the United Kingdom and abroad. Since none of the English teachers speaks or understands Chinese or Vietnamese, Vietnamese interpreters are invaluable in the early stages for sorting out names and ages and, for example, explaining to parents that their two-year-olds, however keen, are really too young to attend the nursery class. Interpreters also play a vital role in the longer run, teaching children to get to and from school using local transport, following up absences among reluctant learners, acting as a home/school link, and introducing the teachers to Vietnamese culture. One enlightened authority is running classes in conversational Vietnamese:

teachers attending these classes soon gain a useful insight into the scope and complexity of the problems the Vietnamese children will face in learning English!

Curriculum

The major difficulty in curriculum planning has been the temporary nature of the children's stay in the reception centres – a period which may vary from a few weeks to several months, but which is rarely to be estimated from the outset. Individual children will leave the centre at different times, and new children, or groups of children, may arrive at any time. Hence, each centre or language unit has a limited and unknown period in which to teach life skills and the most basic 'survival' language. While all the programmes have concentrated on teaching English, classes have generally been supplemented by periods of art, music, domestic science, physical education and sport. There are also outings to museums, zoos, discos, and – perhaps most popular of all – to the teachers' homes.

The older Vietnamese children tend to feel that classes in art, sport and so on are a waste of time, because these activities do not constitute 'work'. Asked what they want to do at school, the children invariably reply that they only want to study English. They say they worked harder in Vietnam, and some of the older pupils feel they are not stretched enough at their English schools, and that they are not learning quickly enough. There is great concern as to the likely educational and career prospects for the teenage group who will have only a few years in our education system. There has as yet been no attempt to introduce the teaching of content lessons in Vietnamese using Vietnamese teachers.

New learning environment

The Vietnamese children are continuing their education not only in a new language, but also in a completely new learning environment. The increased freedom and higher demands on their self-reliance and creativity can result in confusion and disorientation. As one Chinese girl put it; 'The ways they teach are different, and I can't learn anything.' In most groups a steady relationship with one teacher has helped the children to understand what is expected of them, as well as reducing the strangeness of a new educational set-up. The Vietnamese children are very eager to please their teachers and to retain an outward sense of harmony and propriety. It is worth noting that when the children nod and say 'yes', they usually mean 'yes, I hear you', rather than 'yes, I understand you'. This is partly due to the desire to please, but more to the fact that 'yes' is a translation of the polite form 'da', used at the beginning of every Vietnamese sentence. A further factor here is that the system of appraisal in Vietnamese schools changed after October 1975, and the good students were those who said the 'right' things. Teachers have also remarked on a great sense of group solidarity, and of saving face within the group: as soon as one child understands, the message will pass around the class in whispered Vietnamese, and suddenly everyone understands, or so it seems. This can make it very difficult to detect individual children's learning problems, and a sharp look-out has to be kept. Once the children leave the centres and join classes in local schools they may feel very isolated away from this group solidarity and support.

Learning English

Few of the children know anything more than a few words of English on arrival, and all have had to be introduced to the idea of speaking English before writing it. The older children, in particular, some of whom may have studied a little written English in Vietnam, are

initially resistant to this approach. Only the young children are happy to imitate and chant without understanding: one such group even managed a television performance of 'Old Macdonald had a Farm' a mere two weeks after arrival!

The main problem areas in learning English are pronunciation (especially final and medial consonants and consonant clusters), intonation (change of tone in a word in Vietnamese or Chinese changes the entire meaning) and tenses (in Vietnamese, verbs are invariable and used with modifiers to indicate time). The alphabet does not present a great problem since Vietnamese uses a modified Roman alphabet with accents to modify vowels and mark tones. While most of the Chinese children are bilingual in Chinese and Vietnamese, not all are completely familiar with the Vietnamese script. Chinese characters lose their meaning if they are not precisely drawn, and teachers whose handwriting is anything less than perfect have found the children assuming that accidental marks and squiggles are essential parts of the words! Confusion can also result if the pictures used in language work are not very precise in detail.

Emotional factors

Age differences and emotional factors play a big part in the children's attitudes to learning. Emotional problems may only become apparent after a few months, when the children seem to lose interest in their school-work. The children of primary school age seem very quick and receptive, and the teenagers appear to be highly motivated. It is the middle group, lacking both the relaxed attitude of the very young, and the determination of the teenagers who know they have only a few years in which to catch up, who seem to have problems of adjustment. This may be because they cannot understand why their families left Vietnam, and also because they were hardest hit by the educational change and disruption of 1975.

Care and understanding

When the children leave the reception centres for permanent homes in the United Kingdom, they will take with them their school reports giving the usual details of age, level of achievement, special aptitudes or disabilities and so on. There will also be comments on each child's family situation. For those children whose parents are still in Vietnam, whose fathers are in re-education camps, or whose parents have been drowned, or simply not heard of for many months, the adjustment to a new culture and a new education system will be a long and difficult one. They will need all the care and understanding they can get.

Trends 1980/1

Chinese schools in Britain: a minority's response to its own needs

Douglas Jones
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Since the war the Chinese population in Britain has grown from a few hundred to around 60,000. Although there is considerable dispersal, determined mainly by the spread of the Chinese catering trade, there are also large agglomerations, with about 14,000 Chinese in London; and about 1,000 each in Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham and Glasgow. But even in those cities where numbers have reached four figures, Chinese populations remain scattered, owing to the demands of the catering trade in which most of the immigrants are engaged. Consequently, their children rarely constitute more than 5 per cent of the population of any local school they attend.

Early schools

Between the wars, the Chinese in Britain had already established two schools for their own children – in London and Liverpool. The London school, sited over a restaurant in 1928, acquired its own premises in 1933. Its founder, Irene Ho, financed the school with money provided by her father, Sir Robert Ho Tung, a prominent Hong Kong citizen who had already founded an English language school in Kowloon. The aims of the London school, as outlined in its brochure, were to disseminate useful information about China and to teach the Chinese language. Various kinds of ancillary activities such as sports and drama were also offered, and the school ran an employment agency.

The Chung Hwa school, as it was called, and its Liverpool counterpart functioned quite independently of the state education system, and the British-born Chinese children who attended them did so in their spare time. A married couple from Hong Kong were engaged as teachers and wardens in the Chung Hwa school, and Chinese university students were encouraged to give some help with the language teaching.

The war terminated the work of these earliest Chinese schools in Britain, though in Liverpool a Chinese mutual aid association – the Progress Club – took over the task of keeping Chinese language classes alive.

Chinese heritage

That such schools could be successfully established and maintained by the small and declining Chinese communities of inter-war Britain illustrates the concern of Chinese living abroad that their children should not be divorced from their Chinese heritage through growing up in the schools of a host community. Such schools are intended as agencies for promoting Chinese culture among the young, with the insistence that central to that culture is the Chinese written and spoken language. A further aim was expressed in the brochure of the Chung

Hwa school: 'Our fundamental purpose is to help to make these children better men and better women.' Behind this sentiment lies the fear many Chinese living abroad have that their children 'will be seduced by English life-styles and become . . . Teddy Boys or soccer hooligans'.*

New schools

The considerable increase of Chinese immigration into Britain after 1945 led to the setting up of new schools in the 1960s in London's Chinatown, again with the emphasis on Chinese-language teaching. One of these, established by a kinship group – the Cheungs – specifically concentrates on the teaching of the Chinese language to children of the catering trade. Chinese schools have also been established in the other cities already mentioned.

The Chinese school in Coventry is one of the most recent. Organized by two of the city's leading restaurateurs acting in concert with a small group of Chinese students from nearby Warwick University, it has been running for just over a year. The school is sited in the Sidney Stinger Community College near the city centre and has a maximum possible attendance of about eighty children for two hours every Sunday afternoon. The Warwick students teach under the leadership of a postgraduate student – the driving force behind the school. He is responsible for administration, for policy decisions and for contacts with outside agencies, such as the LEA which provides the space, and the Hong Kong authorities who have allocated some funds.

The Chinese restaurateurs, who are also community leaders, maintain links between the school and the Chinese community. They often attend the school, though they take no part in teaching. One of their sons – a third-year undergraduate – is also a member of the teaching team. The team fluctuates; new students join, others withdraw when they come under examination pressure at the university.

Two groups

The children, often related, and from families engaged in the catering trade, come originally from villages in the New Territories of the Crown Colony of Hong Kong – Sheung Shui, Fan Ling, Sha Tau Kok and Tai Po. Educationally they fall into two groups.

The first and largest group comprises children of roughly primary school age. These children were either born in the United Kingdom or arrived here with their parents when they were very young. Consequently they have received no formal Chinese education in Hong Kong and cannot read or write Chinese, though they speak it well since it is used in their own homes and community. They also speak English fluently, having spent all or most of their lives in this country. In addition, they have ample time to work up their English to a competent examination level. Their need, therefore, is to acquire literacy in Chinese and to this end they work with their teachers in small groups, using a standard set of graded readers. These are colourfully illustrated, simple texts reminiscent of the Janet and John series once much used in British schools. These readers can be obtained from any Chinese supermarket. The final aim is to make the children competent to read and write about four thousand characters, the minimum number for everyday use.

The second group comprises a small number of adolescents, ranging in age from fourteen to sixteen-plus. They are fairly recent arrivals, having been in the country, on average, about four years.

* Watson, James L. (editor). *Between Two Cultures*. Oxford: Blackwell, 1977.

Their attendance at the school is sporadic, since much of their spare time is devoted to helping parents run catering establishments. This entails long hours of work in addition to normal school commitments. Girls predominate in this group.

Formal Chinese education

Unlike the younger children, this group has received a formal Chinese education in Hong Kong – including some elementary English language teaching – before coming to Britain. They are already competent in both spoken and written Chinese – their natural medium of expression – but need considerable help with English. Though they speak the language confidently, their achievements fall short of what is needed to succeed in the range of examinations they are variously attempting.* Lack of success in examinations will hinder them from competing in the labour market for jobs outside Chinese catering. Therefore, this group does no Chinese language study, but concentrates on improving its English. Their session usually starts with a 'warm-up' discussion, followed by some formal teaching which culminates in written work.

This group shares a number of common difficulties in pronunciation, comprehension and grammar. For example, a number of English words begin with sounds for which there are no Cantonese equivalents and which, therefore, require considerable effort to master. The tendency is to make do with sounds which are approximations.

The English vocabulary of the group, though sufficient for everyday use, is limited. Consequently, in any piece of written English presented for comprehension, there will usually be a number of key words whose meanings they do not know and which are essential for understanding the passage. Comprehension, of course, can be improved by rote word-learning or better still by reading English books of good literary standard. Members of the group who do read in their spare time, however, invariably prefer Chinese-language novels.

The natural tendency to think in Chinese before writing in English causes a number of characteristic grammatical errors. Central to these is the difficulty of getting the number and tense of the verb right.

Limitations and needs

Considering the Chinese school population in Britain as a whole, there is no doubt that the limitations and the needs of this group exemplify the needs of a large number of teenage Chinese now dispersed throughout the education system. That the language problems identified above are being adequately tackled in the British schools is evident from the written work of the group.†

So far, only in Soho and in certain parts of Liverpool are there large enough concentrations of Chinese children to make specialist group teaching possible. Though group teaching might seem a solution to the English-language problem, the Chinese children themselves affirm that they learn English more quickly when isolated. In groups they revert to Chinese conversation among themselves whenever possible. The danger of dispersal is not that it will retard their ability in English, but that it will render them more subject to discrimination.

* Even O-level Chinese requires some translation into English.

† The Chinese teachers, however, who have close contact with this group, would like more remedial work done in schools on a one-to-one basis, if this were possible.

Attitudes

Where Chinese schools have been established, the Chinese support them enthusiastically and make considerable efforts to ensure that their children attend regularly, even if it involves conveying them long distances by car. This enthusiasm reflects the concern Chinese living abroad have that their children shall not grow up divorced from the essentials of Chinese culture, which they consider superior to that of the host community.

Chinese attitudes to education facilities in Britain vary. Some who can afford to do so send their children back to Hong Kong for schooling rather than expose them to the British system. Other affluent Chinese, on the other hand, have entered their children in English fee-paying schools. Others again have encouraged their children to take full advantage of the state system in the hope that they will ultimately attain university places. One Midlands businessman has got three of his children through university – one of them went to Cambridge.

In the main, however, the Chinese continue to regard British schools with mistrust. They fear that what seems to them easy discipline and a lack of formal learning procedures will lead their children to adopt bad attitudes, such as loss of respect for authority and a contempt for learning.

The Chinese schools have much to commend them, reflecting as they do typical Chinese self-reliance in tackling their own community problems. Time will tell whether the decision to equate Chinese culture with Chinese written language is the right one. Much depends on whether the British Chinese community, once a sojourner community, now intends to stay. If they do, it seems inevitable that written Chinese will die out among their descendants. If the attempt to equate Chinese culture with caligraphy fails, the volunteer teachers must shift quickly to disseminating this culture through other disciplines, such as history or literature. For example, many Chinese classics and much poetry are now available in English translation, as is a good deal of contemporary folk literature published by the English Language Press in Peking. A study of such writings would serve the dual purpose of introducing Chinese children here to some of the best things in Chinese literature, while at the same time vastly improving their understanding of English.

Ten years of the Open University

Asa Briggs
Provost, Worcester College, Oxford, and Chancellor, Open University

The Open University (OU) celebrated its tenth anniversary in 1979. A decade represents only a very brief span in the life of educational institutions, yet there is always a very special significance about the first ten years. It is then that lines of direction are set and structures created. It is then, too, that pioneering individuals can leave a permanent mark. Lord Briggs looks back over the past ten years and forward to the future.

Looked at in what is still short-term perspective, the OU stands out as a product of the 1960s – a decade of quite exceptional ferment in education in Britain and overseas. It came into existence, at no stage without difficulty, as a result of a convergence of interests – interest in technology (particularly communications technology) and its use in education; interest in opening up access to higher education to people previously outside its boundaries; interest on the part of politicians in developing educational policies of a positive kind which, in the national interest, would make the fullest use of an untapped 'pool of ability'.

The first students were not enrolled, however, until 1971 – 19,581 of them, a remarkable first intake – and by then Britain and the world were moving into a decade which in almost every respect contrasted with the 1960s. The OU's achievements, generally acknowledged, even by many critics of the idea during the 1960s, must be considered in this new context.

'Communications revolution'

Interest in technology remains strong, and there is recognition that the 'communications revolution' may well be entering into new phases involving less dependence on mass broadcasting but a wider range of receiving and recording facilities for individuals and small groups. Yet from the very beginning, the OU did not depend as much on broadcasting as some of the prophets of the idea of a 'university of the air' had urged that it might do. The early position was well summed up by a senior BBC producer:

> 'The programmes produced . . . embraced a creditably wide spectrum of styles and techniques, and producers and academics learnt as they went along what worked for one student audience and what did not . . . It very quickly registered that Open University students were ruthless with their time allocation for different courses'.

Regular viewing and listening accounted for approximately only 10 per cent of the student's time allocation of not less than ten, and

often more than fourteen, hours of study a week. As in the case of students in other universities, 65 per cent of the student's time allocation was spent on systematic reading, and the OU itself produced an impressive battery of published course materials: they are now widely known in many parts of the world.

Home-based learning

In retrospect, we can see that the most distinctive feature of the OU was not dependence on the media, but the home-based situation of the student learning at a distance. This method of learning would not have worked had not special attention been devoted to the needs of the individual student as a learner. In this connection the OU drew on other traditions of education in this country and linked correspondence courses with individual tuition and counselling. The concept of personal tutor is very English; and contact with tutors and counsellors, attending study centres to meet other students, and taking part in summer schools now account for a larger proportion of student's time allocation (15 per cent) than regular viewing and listening.

Learning how to learn is particularly necessary for students who come from homes where there is no tradition of learning and where obstacles are placed in the way of it. How far has the OU lived up to the hopes of people who in the 1960s talked, often eloquently, about opening up higher education to people previously outside its boundaries?

Entrance qualifications

The university would not have been able to attempt this difficult task had it not been chartered as 'open' in the sense that none of its students needed to have educational qualifications at entry, and had it not organized its degree courses, unlike all other British universities, on the basis of a credit system – a building-block system which allows students to learn at their own pace and to take their degrees after varying amounts of time.

Normal minimum entrance qualifications for British universities are two A-Level GCE passes. Of OU registered students in 1971, 6·3 per cent had no formal educational qualifications at all, and the proportion of such students subsequently rose. It is difficult to set in 'order of merit' the patterns of formal educational qualifications of other students, but over 30 per cent lacked qualifications that would have given them entry rights to existing universities. So far the OU has produced almost 39,000 graduates. Over 6,000 of them have not possessed the requisite entry qualifications. This is a reasonable proportion given two important considerations. First, many students without such qualifications are still 'in the pipeline'. Second, it is impossible to judge the educational success of the OU simply in terms of the number of graduates it produces. The acquisition of fewer credits than are necessary for a degree may represent significant individual effort and achievement. A different way of stating the position about graduates is that four out of ten of the 1971 students who, judging by previous educational qualifications, were not 'university material' have obtained a degree.

Learning role

The length of the learning process was impossible to predict in the late 1960s when courses were being prepared. There is now interesting evidence (see Table I).

Table I **Time taken by new students of the Open University to graduate. Students commencing in 1971, 1972 and 1973**

Year of graduation	Students commencing in					
	1971		1972		1973	
	Nos.	Percentage	Nos.	Percentage	Nos.	Percentage
1972	898	4·6				
1973	3,318	16·9	322	2·1		
1974	2,636	13·5	2,292	14·6	252	1·9
1975	1,649	8·4	1,743	11·1	1,859	14·7
1976	1,259	6·4	1,349	8·6	1,495	11·8
1977	561	2·9	1,120	7·1	1,063	8·4
1978	318	1·6	548	3·5	877	6·9
1979	195	1·0	290	1·8	440	3·5
Subtotal graduates at 1979	10,834	55·3	7,664	48·8	5,986	47·2
Not yet graduated	8,747	44·7	8,055	51·2	6,694	52·8
Total student intake	19,581	100	15,719	100	12,680	100

Each year 5,000 to 6,000 OU graduates are being added to the total so that by the year 2000 there will be a massive OU graduate presence in the life of the country.

Nature of students

Teachers have, as expected, formed a high proportion of the total student entry: indeed, the proportion was as high as 31·4 per cent in 1971, though it has subsequently fallen. Their learning rates are faster, and seven out of ten of them are likely to graduate. The category of 'manual worker' students is still small – less than 10 per cent – and from experience gathered over the decade it is estimated that three out of ten of them will proceed to degrees. The proportion of weekly-wage-earner students, of course, is far higher, and although there is no scope for any complacency in relation to any questions concerning more equal access to higher education, the OU has already proved that there is a great and continuous demand among working adults for degree-level studies in a wide range of subjects, which includes science and technology.

The position of teachers raises particularly interesting questions about the relationship between the OU and other educational institutions. It is difficult to believe that the teaching profession could have become what official policy wants it to become – a graduate profession – if the OU had not existed. Certainly OU programmes have filtered down to schools during the last ten years, with movement also in the opposite direction. On a different front, several traditional universities – with the University of Sussex in the vanguard – have become increasingly willing, for various reasons, to offer places to a number of older applicants without initial A-level qualifications.

Influence

Nor are these the only signs of the OU's influence on the university system. As the OU's first Vice-Chancellor, Sir Walter Perry (now Lord Perry), put it, even before any students had actually been admitted:

> 'To launch a new institution into the educational scene is rather like dropping a pebble into a pond. It causes ripples to spread out in all directions. When the size and shape of

the pebbles are not known, then people will begin to speculate about those ripples and how they will be affected by them in their own particular corner of the pond.'

The Vice-Chancellor was speaking at a time when such speculation was often tinged with suspicion. After ten years it is actual experience which registers. The success of the OU's credit system and the exemptions procedures it introduced, prompted also by other developments, have fostered more open discussion about transfers between different universities and other educational institutions within a more flexible national system. In addition, the policy of holding OU summer schools in other universities, and employing staff of other universities as part-time tutors and counsellors, has made for all kinds of mutual involvement. Finally the OU has stimulated argument about the need for continuing or life-long education – still rather more a slogan than a reality, but as common a slogan of the 1970s as 'new university' was in the 1960s. It is appropriate that Ray Flude and Allen Parrott's *Education and the Challenge of Change**, devoted entirely to this subject, has been published by the Open University Press, though neither of the authors is employed by the OU.

The OU itself set up a Committee on Continuing Education in 1974 – a bleak year in Britain's post-war history. Its task was to make recommendations on the nature and scale of the OU's future contribution to the national development of continuing education, including professional education and training, and to the educational well being of the community generally. It was also asked to prepare the outlines of a long-term plan, to estimate the resources needed for its implementation and to propose a structure for its organization. Not surprisingly, the most difficult obstacle in the way of what could prove to be one of the most formidable and challenging tasks of the next ten years is 'resources needed', and there has been and will be much discussion about how best to proceed. Meanwhile, three aims have been more clearly identified – to develop occupational competence, often, as in the case of teachers, through short courses; to develop personal awareness and social competence; and to develop personal, intellectual and aesthetic abilities. The last is a long-term process which the OU may simply initiate.

Two important developments

In the academic field the OU has pioneered two important developments during its first ten years. First, it has set out with remarkable lucidity in the materials it offers to students what the objectives, contents, organization and learning requirement of each course unit are – there are now well over 100 of them – and has explained with equal lucidity how each course is related to others. No university prospectus could be more explicit. Second, it has developed what are called 'course teams' – a new concept in university organization. The teams, which can vary in size from three or four to thirty, are groups of academic and support staff who combine their complementary experience to produce the multi-media packages, including the course kits, which provide the basis of the student's work. A course team may include academic staff from one discipline or faculty or several, and some of the most interesting courses – in the applied sciences as much as in the arts – are inter-disciplinary in character.

* Flude, Ray and Allen Parrott. *Education and the Challenge of Change. A Recurrent Education Strategy for Britain.* Milton Keynes: Open University Press, 1979.

Other members of the course teams usually include BBC television and radio producers (the OU's contract with the BBC, which will have to be renewed in the early 1980s, sets out the terms of what is still a fundamental partnership), a member of the OU's own Institute of Educational Technology (one of a number of research units) who advises on course structures, a staff tutor who watches over course requirements in the regions (engaging part-time tutors and organizing time and space in study centres) and a course assistant. An editor and designer assist with the production of written material. In addition to OU staff, outside consultants knowledgeable in the subjects concerned are usually asked to criticize early drafts of the course. Sometimes, indeed, the first drafts are written by consultants, who often appear, too, on radio and television programmes. In addition, pilot and draft written material sometimes undergoes a development testing phase to assess student response.

Foundation course

One other academic development – this time proposed by the Academic Advisory Committee set up before the first students were enrolled – has been the foundation course, a kind of initiation course first pioneered by the University of Keele. Every new OU student begins by taking one of the foundation courses offered in arts, social science, mathematics, science or technology. Students with little or no previous experience of higher education must study two foundation courses before they can graduate, while those with two or more credit exemptions are permitted to study only one. Students can take two foundation courses in their first year as a lead-in or one foundation course along with a half-credit course in elementary mathematics. The great majority settle for one.

Subjects

As far as subject distribution is concerned, the OU has to try to ensure that it is not swamped with students in one subject cluster and short of students in another. It has had to regulate targets, therefore, which has meant that some applicants have had to wait before being admitted. The numbers of applicants wishing to study arts subjects has remained steady after an early increase, while the number of applicants wishing to study the social sciences (in line with experience in other institutions) has gone down; and there has been a recent increase in applications both for sciences and mathematics. New foundation courses in science and mathematics seem to have helped rather than hindered student demand. If the OU is to be successful during a period of strained financial resources, it must still have the capacity to change courses in the light of new knowledge and experience.

Great progress

The OU's students have been its greatest asset, as well as its only rationale. They have shown extraordinary capacity to learn under difficulties, great resilience when on their own but sensible cooperation when they have been thrown together, and critical but loyal attachment to their university. Their magazine *Sesame* is an excellent guide to what is really happening not at Milton Keynes, the University's headquarters, but in the country. And OU degree days, held in scattered places, are family occasions when every one in the family feels a strong sense of participation. In short, the OU must be judged by its quality of life, as well as by its statistics, and in this respect, at least, no other university could have made greater progress in such a short period of time.

Part-time higher education: an economist's view

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This article, based on work carried out in the Planning Unit of the DES, illustrates the economist's contribution to thinking in an important but at times neglected area of education.

The planning of higher education in this country usually concentrates on the number and distribution of full-time and 'sandwich' students. Full-time students considerably outnumber part-timers and, taking everything into account, a full-time student would generally cost more to educate than his part-time colleague. But the part-time sector is not insignificant. In 1976/7 nearly half of all public-sector students in higher education and about one in eleven university students studied part-time.

In the ten years from 1966/7 to 1976/7 numbers of part-time students increased in both universities and Advanced Further Education (AFE)* sectors (see Table 1). In universities, part-time students formed about 8 to 9 per cent of a growing total number of students in each year. By 1976/7 part-time postgraduates outnumbered their undergraduate counterparts by about three to one and constituted about 30 per cent of all university postgraduates.

In the AFE sector, the composition of the student body changed during this period. Between 1966 and 1976 there was a drop of 20 per cent in evening-only study, but in aggregate this decline was compensated by an increase in part-time day study. Overall, however, part-time numbers in AFE have not matched the increase in full-time study – largely associated with the growth of the polytechnics – and, as a result, part-time students have declined as a proportion of all AFE students. The dominance of AFE in part-time provision means that in higher education as a whole part-timers have declined as a proportion of all students.

Distribution

Within global figures of this sort considerable variations occur, and, as one might expect, part-time students are concentrated more in some fields than in others. This is true both of levels and subjects of study. An analysis of the distribution of part-time students suggests that economic factors strongly influence the decision whether to study full-time or part-time. This represents a good example of the well tested hypothesis that the demand for any kind of voluntary study reflects the potential student's perceptions of the benefits and costs of that study to himself. The benefits comprise, *inter alia*, his perceptions of the enhanced earnings, social status and job satisfaction

* AFE is defined in this article as education above A-level standard undertaken in major educational establishments maintained or assisted by local education authorities (and including the polytechnics); direct grant establishments; voluntary colleges; and adult education centres. However, students on teacher training courses have been omitted.

Table 1
Part-time students in universities and AFE 1966/7–1976–7

Academic year	Universities							AFE			Universities and AFE	
	Part-time undergraduates	As a percentage of all undergraduates	Part-time postgraduates	As a percentage of all postgraduates	Total part-time students	Total full-time and sandwich students	Total part-time students as percentage of all students	Total part-time students (day and evening)	Total full-time and sandwich students	Total part-time students as percentage of all students	Total part-time students	As a percentage of all students
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6) = (2) + (4)	(7)	(8) = (6) / [(6) + (7)]	(9)	(10)	(11) = (9) / [(9) + (10)]	(12) = (6) + (9)	(13) = (12) / [(6) + (7) + (9) + (10)]
1966–67	3,367	2·6	10,816	27·2	14,183	154,455	8·4	107,900	53,948	66·7	122,083	36·9
1967–68	2,958	2·1	11,708	26·9	14,666	167,580	8·0	114,930	65,952	63·5	129,596	35·7
1968–69	3,359	2·3	13,299	28·0	16,658	177,485	8·6	111,640	74,669	59·9	128,298	33·7
1969–70	3,416	2·2	15,734	30·6	19,150	184,109	9·4	114,640	80,928	58·6	133,790	33·5
1970–71	3,709	2·4	15,545	28·9	19,254	191,377	9·1	109,500	84,615	56·4	128,754	31·8
1971–72	2,786*	1·7*	16,732	29·3	19,518*	197,181	9·0*	107,340	90,563	54·2	126,858*	30·6*
1972–73	2,523	1·6	17,100	29·0	19,623	200,999	8·9	107,200	92,932	53·6	126,823	30·1
1973–74	2,607	1·6	17,621	29·4	20,228	205,141	9·0	108,260	96,736	52·8	128,488	29·9
1974–75	2,510	1·5	18,333	29·8	20,843	210,821	9·0	116,240	101,942	53·3	137,083	30·5
1975–76	2,649	1·5	18,850	29·6	21,499	220,710	8·9	122,920	116,010	51·4	144,419	30·0
1976–77	2,804	1·5	19,759	30·4	22,563	230,144	8·9	125,070	130,381	49·0	147,633	29·1

* decrease due to a change in basis of statistics.

NOTES: (*a*) All figures refer to England and Wales.
(*b*) University figures are derived from Statistics of Education, Vol 6.
(*c*) AFE figures are derived from Statistics of Education, Vol. 3. They exclude students on teacher training courses and are based on course enrolments, which means that there may be some double counting of students who enrolled for more than one part-time course.

of work requiring a higher qualification, and possibly his reduced propensity to unemployment. The principal costs of study include the earnings foregone while studying (less any awards received); the student's perception of the burden of his study on his family (through, for example, the parental contribution required); and any out-of-pocket expenses he may bear, such as travelling costs and study fees.

Table 2 shows the distribution of part-time students in university and AFE in 1976/7. Statistical differences in the treatment of part-time students make direct comparisons between the two sectors difficult, but it is clear that, other than for postgraduate study, the further-education sector dominates part-time provision.

At non-degree levels AFE is, of course, the main provider. In 1976/7 almost half of the part-time students at this level were studying for professional qualifications and a further 25 per cent for HNC or other diplomas. These are strongly employment-related qualifications – for many students part-time attendance at college is a requirement of training – and courses are geared to their needs. So, for many students the 'choice' of part-time rather than full-time study reflects prior decision. Similarly, the subjects chosen reflect career choice: for example, a large proportion of those studying for professional qualifications were studying either accountancy or management. At non-degree level, then, the link between a choice of part-time study and prospective earnings seems important.

Undergraduates

At the undergraduate level, Table 2 shows that both the proportion and number of part-timers in the public sector are greater than in the university sector. This partly reflects the strong traditions of part-time study in the public sector and its close links with industry, but it also reflects the Government policy since 1965 that the public sector should cater for part-time students.

The route chosen to obtain an undergraduate qualification (i.e. full-time or part-time) probably makes little difference to the material benefits of that qualification once it has been earned. Students are likely to be well aware of this, so it is to costs, and in particular the awards system, rather than to benefits that we must look for an explanation of the low proportion of part-time undergraduates.

For most prospective undergraduates, an award to study full-time will be mandatory whereas an award for part-time study will be discretionary. Most young people, who form the bulk of the undergraduate intake, will normally be eligible for a mandatory award. Not surprisingly the majority choose to study full-time rather than face the uncertainty involved in applying for a discretionary award and make the considerable sacrifice in leisure time that part-time study necessitates. So, except for those unable to obtain a mandatory award, or those often older students for whom a mandatory award would mean a significant drop in household income, full-time study is the obvious route to a degree. An analysis of part-time undergraduates shows them to be older and often formally less well qualified than their full-time counterparts: they also tend to be drawn from occupations where there is a tradition of release for part-time study and where job conditions are conducive to it (for example, teaching).

Postgraduates

At the postgraduate level, awards for full-time study are restricted, and part-time study is more prevalent. The universities dominate part-time postgraduate work, and here, as Table 1 shows, numbers have grown virtually every year. A subject analysis of these students shows that they are concentrated in education, medicine and the arts.

Table 2
The distribution of part-time students in AFE and universities, England and Wales, 1976/77

Level of study								
AFE	Total part-time	Total full-time and sandwich	Total	Total part-time	Total full-time and sandwich	Total part-time	Total full-time and sandwich	Total
Postgraduate	8,029	3,913	11,942	6·4	3·0	67·2	32·8	100
First degree	6,677	70,971	77,648	5·3	54·4	8·6	91·4	100
HNC/HND	28,453	14,758	43,211	22·8	11·3	65·8	34·2	100
Professional qualifications	60,497	19,219	79,716	48·4	14·7	75·9	24·1	100
College diploma	3,204	10,501	13,705	2·6	8·1	23·4	76·6	100
Other advanced	18,206	11,019	29,225	14·6	8·5	62·3	37·7	100
Total	125,066	130,381	225,447	100	100	49·0	51·0	100
Universities								
Postgraduate	20,601	43,895	64,496	86·8	18·4	31·9	68·1	100
Undergraduate	3,140	194,359	197,499	13·2	81·6	1·6	98·4	100
Total	23,741	238,254	261,995	100	100	9·1	90·9	100

Notes—see Table 1

In the first two areas, the employment links (i.e. enhanced career prospects) are important; in addition, part-time research may also be more easily followed than in the laboratory sciences. Arts awards for full-time study are less easily obtained than awards in the sciences and this, combined with the factors above, almost certainly also contributes to the importance of part-time work. In the public sector, the employment link is particularly significant; over three-quarters of part-time postgraduates are in social departments, most of them studying for the postgraduate diploma in management studies.

Economic forces

So, at all levels of study, distribution of part-time higher education students reflects economic forces. This implies that to alter the distribution, or change the number of part-time higher education students, economic forces need to be harnessed. For instance, simply making more places available for part-time study will not necessarily mean that they will be taken up, if the cost of doing so, from the student's point of view, seems high, or the benefits low. Supply does not necessarily create its own demand.

Policy

Both in times of increasing expenditure, or of expenditure cuts, a move away from the *status quo* can only really be justified if its total benefits exceed its total costs (or more generally, when what is gained – which might be an expenditure saving – is thought to outweigh what is given up – which might be a service). To make policy decisions of this sort, not only will it be necessary to consider as many of the likely benefits and costs as possible, but also to weigh them up in a consistent way. Unfortunately, both of these stages present formidable problems.

At the adumbration stage, there are two principal difficulties. First, important items can easily be omitted from the evaluation: an example might be the additional wear-and-tear costs on buildings associated with increased part-time student numbers. Second, some items, particularly social or educational benefits, may be very difficult to define, let alone quantify. For instance, it is sometimes claimed that benefits described in generalized terms such as 'wider educational and social benefits' or 'enabling people to make a more effective contribution to society' will result from a particular scheme. While most people would not dispute the existence of more abstract social benefits of this sort, it is often not at all clear exactly what is meant by the phrases used, or whether the proposal under discussion would be the best way of achieving the desired outcome.

The evaluation stage presents further difficulties. Virtually any increment in educational expenditure will bring forth some additional benefits. But that is true of most social expenditure, although obviously the benefits and their recipients will vary from programme to programme. Unfortunately, the economy has only limited resources at its disposal (buildings, equipment, manpower and so on), and so if resources are made available for part-time higher education, ultimately something will have to be foregone elsewhere; and the benefits those resources could have produced in an alternative use also foregone. The resources used in part-time higher education should therefore be valued in terms of their next best alternative use (or opportunity cost). From this it follows that the cost of any increment in part-time higher education to be set against expected benefits is the total value of what has to be given up to achieve that increment (i.e. its resource cost).

To be able to compare resource costs and benefits it is desirable to bring as many of them as possible on to a common footing: money is the most obvious. But in many cases this will be impossible, and in the

final analysis the decision maker will be faced with some quantified elements and some items that can only be measured in physical or ordinal terms. It is in setting these 'unquantifiables' beside the quantified elements, and deciding the extent to which they add or subtract from the quantified elements, that the educationist's expertise comes to the fore. But, by doing so, the decision maker will be forced to reveal his implicit valuation of the unquantifiable elements.

Important implications

This analysis has two important implications. First, even in times of expenditure restraint, an expansion in one area of activity may be considered economically acceptable provided that its benefits exceed what has to be given up elsewhere in favour of it. Second, in judging between alternative options, both the cost and the benefits must be fully taken into account. With this in mind some of the arguments which have been advanced in favour of increased provision of part-time higher education can be examined.*

First, it has been argued that there is a substantial body of potential part-time students able and wishing to study for whom no suitable courses exist: proponents cite as evidence the large responses to Birkbeck College and the Open University. Evidence of this sort is always difficult to interpret, but, even if excess demand were to be demonstrated, in itself this would not necessarily justify expansion. To do this, the incremental benefits from satisfying the excess demand would have to exceed the incremental cost of doing so.

Second, it has been suggested that part-time higher education should be expanded because it can confer the same earnings benefits as full-time study, but more cheaply. Studies of the rate of return to higher education, which compare the benefits and costs of study, reinforce this view by generally showing a high return to part-time work: but this is not a sufficient case for expansion either. The measured returns of both full-time and part-time study reflect only those items measured and do not normally include unquantifiables, for example, the cultural benefits of being a full-time member of a university. Further, the returns depend critically on the assumption used in their calculation: for example, assumptions made about the allocation of fixed costs between the full-time and part-time students. Lastly, and most importantly, the rate of return measures the average return achieved by all existing or past students surveyed; it would not necessarily apply to additional students.

Third, it is argued that part-time higher education is flexible and responds quickly to perceived manpower needs; those already employed notice manpower needs in their fields of work, and study in order to fill new vacancies and earn more. While this may be an argument for part-time study in principle, it does not seem to be necessarily an argument for increased provision.

Influencing numbers

If the demand for higher education does reflect the student's perception of its benefits and costs, it is germane to consider how far it is possible to influence the economic forces bearing upon the student.

In general, it will not be possible for government to influence either the benefits of study (enhanced earnings and so on) or the earnings or leisure time foregone by students. But it should be possible to influence perceptions of those benefits and costs, and in

* Arguments in favour of contracting part-time higher education are less often encountered.

particular, the relative benefits and costs of full-time and part-time study. For example, some switching of demand from full-time to part-time study might be affected by dissemination of information to students, employers and institutions, emphasizing, for example, that the job opportunities for degree holders are likely to be the same irrespective of their mode of study; that part-time trained staff should be as productive as full-time trained; and that part-time students can often be educated at low marginal cost. But, up to now, DES has never explicitly adopted a positive demand-switching policy of this sort. Rather, it has attempted to cater for student demand however it manifests itself.

The fees/awards system offers another potential means for government to adjust the student's cost of study. This might either create a new part-time demand, or switch demand from full-time to part-time work. For example, a cut in part-time fees might be expected to create new part-time demand: on the other hand, if full-time fees were raised but part-time fees held constant, demand might be expected to switch. Similarly, changes in awards policy might also create or switch demand, but the effect here should not be overestimated, because an award will normally only be a small part of a part-time student's total income.

The conditions of study might also be changed. For example, it is suggested that a more widespread adoption of credit transfer, whereby work undertaken at one institution can count towards a qualification obtained elsewhere, might not only create new demand at low cost, but also, by reducing student wastage, increase the proportion of those completing their studies.

Supply

Discussion so far has centred on the demand for part-time study, not supply. A case for an increased supply of places could be made were it decided to limit full-time provision, and divert some full-time students into part-time work. But increased supply of part-time places may not create its own demand. There is no guarantee that frustrated full-time students would be able to find a suitable combination of course and job. Second, students diverted into part-time study may not only be less able, but may also be less well motivated than other part-timers, a combination that suggests a higher wastage rate: they might also 'crowd out' better motivated, but perhaps formally less well qualified applicants. In other words, the cost of such a policy might well exceed any financial savings.

A policy of 'enforced switching' of this sort merely diminishes student choice. But if a switch of emphasis from full-time to part-time study is contemplated the principal question on the supply side then becomes one of finding the most cost effective way of providing for the expected increase in part-time numbers. The choice seems to be between an increase in supply spread across many universities and institutions of AFE and an increase concentrated in specialized institutions, say along the lines of Birkbeck College. (Another alternative, and one which would complement either of these, is an expansion of the Open University).

Clearly, these alternatives have different resource implications, but they may also offer different benefits too. It is claimed that widely spread provision not only makes courses more accessible to students, but also minimizes student travel time and cost, and, as a result, is likely to generate more demand than does concentrated provision. Proponents of specialized institutions on the other hand claim that these confer additional educational benefits for part-timers when

compared with more traditional provision because staff concentrate entirely on the part-time students problems and lectures are geared to their needs. But this is just another example of the need to include all benefits and all costs in evaluation of part-time higher education.

Quantified and unquantifiable elements

In the final analysis the decision maker will inevitably be faced with some quantified and some unquantified elements. In setting the unquantifiables beside the quantified benefits and costs, the decision-maker faces the unenviable task of implicitly valuing the unquantifiables. But to fail to do so will mean that decisions will necessarily be more imperfect than they need be.

In my opinion, then, a minimum requirement in any evaluation of a change in part-time higher education policy should be an adumbration and precise definition of all of the likely benefits and costs of proposals under discussion, and a quantification of as many elements of each as is feasible. The implicit value assigned to the unquantifiables by the decision maker would then become more obvious and the choice between proposals perhaps more rational. Unfortunately, it does not become any easier!

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Trends 1980/1

Tertiary colleges—the first decade

John Miles
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Ten years ago Britain's first tertiary college opened at Exeter. There are now seventeen tertiary colleges either established or approved in England and Wales and a number of other schemes are at an advanced stage of consideration. Readers of this article who are not already familiar with tertiary colleges are increasingly likely to become involved with them in some way in the future. If they do not encounter tertiary colleges in their capacity as parents, administrators, or ratepayers, they may well do so at some stage of their career as teachers. John Miles looks at this important innovation.

The name 'tertiary college' still causes confusion in the minds of the general public who find it hard to keep up with the variety of forms of sixteen-plus education. A tertiary college is run under further education regulations and is responsible for all sixteen-plus education (excluding higher education) in the area it serves. Thus it brings together work that elsewhere would be separately centred, for example, in a sixth-form college and a further education college.

It is at this point that the interests of the ratepayer and the educationist can sometimes be seen to coincide. In terms of resources and expenditure the tertiary college may offer a rationalization of staffing, buildings and equipment and hence possibly an answer to the prob-

lems of falling rolls and small sixth forms. To the educationist, however, the rationalization it offers is even more important, since it embraces curriculum, organization and the whole spirit of an institution. It also offers the opportunity of building on the traditions of the sixth form and the further education college to create a distinctively new approach to the education of the sixteen to nineteen age group and the whole adult community.

Sheep and goats

For various historical reasons the English education system has been fond of categorizing students irrevocably at sixteen, or even earlier, as academic sheep or vocational goats. It is hardly too much of an exaggeration to say that traditionally the able middle-class youngster has qualified through sixth form and university, while his working class counterpart has gained his technical and professional qualifications at technical college. Too often later on when those who have qualified by these two different routes have been called upon to work together in some common industrial enterprise, they have had to overcome a lack of mutual confidence and understanding. In recent years this pattern has begun to change. The opportunities offered by further education colleges for study at sixteen-plus have become much wider and also much more widely known. Given the choice many more youngsters from all social groups have chosen the further education college as an alternative to the school sixth form. This trend has been interestingly examined in the recent major research report *The Sixth Form and its Alternatives**. The aim of the tertiary college is quite consciously to recognize what is happening and to fuse the two educational traditions.

Curriculum

To achieve such an aim the tertiary college must offer not only an unusual breadth of curriculum, but a wide range of choice for the individual student. A typical tertiary college might have 700 full-time students, 2,000 more students attending one-day-a-week craft or technician courses, and another 2,000 or more evening students taking a variety of vocational, cultural and recreational leisure courses, ranging from languages and computer studies to renaissance music, pottery, cookery and dressmaking.

The curriculum offered will include the following full-time courses plus others to meet specialist local needs and a whole range of part-time courses.

GCE O- and A- level:	(twenty-five to thirty subjects at each level in modular options including the possibility of combinations with vocational subjects)
Ordinary National Diplomas:	technology hotel and catering operations
Business Education Council:	(BEC) General, BEC National
Off-the-job training:	various Industrial Training Boards, including engineering, road transport, construction
Full-time engineering	(Technician Education Council (TEC) etc)

* Dean, Judy, Kath Bradley, Bruce Choppin and Denis Vincent. *The Sixth Form And Its Alternatives.* Slough: NFER, 1979.

Full-time construction	(TEC and so on)
Foundation courses:	music, art, drama
Full-time secretarial: (frequently including a choice of one or more GCE subjects)	RSA, Pitman London Chamber of Commerce bilingual secretary medical secretary medical receptionist

National Nursery Examination Board (NNEB)

Preliminary Certificate in Residential Child Care (PRCC)

Hairdressing (City and Guilds etc)

Home management and family care

General catering

Training Opportunities Schemes

Work experience (including handicapped)

City and Guilds Foundation

This approach to the curriculum has led tertiary colleges to a radical rethinking of the traditional patterns of college organization familiar from the expansion of further education in the mid-sixties. The traditional departmental structure has been completely abandoned by some colleges, while in others it has been significantly modified.

Course and subject choice

An effective scheme of advice on choice of subjects and courses is also necessary. This process starts with the neighbouring eleven to sixteen schools, and it is here that one of the big changes in school/college relationships has been taking place. School pupils in many parts of the country still receive very little information about the opportunities in further education and there is often a reluctance to allow college staff into the schools to discuss course choices and opportunities.

The constraints affecting this relationship are entirely absent where there is a tertiary college, with the result that college staff are readily invited into the local schools to talk to pupils from the third year onwards. This means that when youngsters eventually apply to college they are likely to know a great deal more about the choices open to them.

Close discussion between schools, careers teachers and college staff is the essential first stage in a gradual process. Fifth-year pupils may hear talks from visiting college staff and will also have opportunities to go on organized visits to the college. Some school pupils will have gained an insight into college work through attendance on link courses. At the school-leaving stage there will be interviews with college staff and provisional plans will be made that may be revised in the light of the results of examinations taken in the last year in school.

On joining a course a full-time student will be assigned to a personal tutor who will see him regularly and who will be responsible for keeping his progress under review. If an initial choice is proving unsatisfactory, it will be important to arrange an early transfer to a more appropriate course or unit of study. Personal as well as professional interests must be considered. Students on a two-year secretarial course need to be made aware of the complementary

studies they can take and many of them, in fact, take one or more A-levels. Students on BEC National courses may need encouragement to investigate the options, such as languages and computing, that the new BEC courses make available. Students taking arts and social science A-levels will certainly need encouragement if they are to consider complementary-studies options in such subjects as workshop practice and technology. The more adventurous spirits who take such options testify subsequently to their value.

The college's tutorial system must also ensure that early promise is fulfilled, and that high standards are consistently maintained in both work and attendance. In some courses, such as those of TEC and BEC, requirements for course work and for attendance may be externally prescribed.

Success

Colleges know that they will be critically judged by their results, both by their educational peers and by their prospective 'customers', students and parents. In order to succeed they must persuade their clients that they offer a high expectation of success. Efficient tuition, of course, does not preclude a sympathetic approach to personal guidance. Colleges have arranged this in various ways. Some have appointed full-time specialists to look after aspects of student welfare, while others have preferred to organize existing members of their full-time teaching staff into teams of counsellors who can give confidential personal advice.

It is already apparent that the care over student guidance and the attention paid to aims and methods of teaching are having their effects. For the results achieved in the tertiary colleges, both in academic and in vocational examinations, have consistently exceeded expectations. This is borne out by the NFER's survey,* as well as by detailed enquiries and analyses which have been carried out in particular areas. Tertiary college students are gaining their share of open awards at Oxford and Cambridge. They are also doing well in their subsequent degree examinations, gaining a respectable share of first-class honours and upper seconds. Among students who are gaining good honours degrees are those who have followed the OND route, as well as those who have prepared by the more conventional route of A-levels.

Atmosphere

The first thing that strikes a newcomer to a tertiary college, however, is probably not the curriculum or the organization, but the atmosphere. Unless that is right, curricular aims are unlikely to be achieved. It is in this respect that the break at sixteen can prove to be of positive benefit. Members of a college where many of the students are already earning their living, and where two thirds of the staff have also earned their living as practitioners in industry, commerce and the professions, will expect to be treated as responsible adults. A college has to provide an essential intermediate stage in personal development between the formal rules of school life and the self-discipline needed in higher education or industry. I do not find it surprising that this approach is proving acceptable to students. The NFER survey* suggests that students' perception of the aims of college work is often a good deal more down to earth than the statements of heads and principals. Those of us who presume to organize schools and colleges may have a lesson to learn from this!

* *Ibid.*

Any claim to treat students as adults is quite hollow unless they have a real share in the responsibility for making decisions. The corporate structure of a tertiary college, through its governors and academic board, is one that places considerable responsibility and decision-making within the institutions. The governing body, designed to be broadly representative of industry, commerce and the professions, as well as educational interests, has substantial powers in such areas as the control of finance and the appointment of staff. Students, as well as elected members of college staff, serve on governing bodies and make an important contribution to their proceedings. Students' unions will also expect to be very fully consulted about policy matters as well as the everyday aspects of college life.

Innovation

From the late sixties onwards the polytechnics began to emerge as outward-looking institutions developing close links with industry and pioneering new initiatives, not only in technology, but also in fields such as management education. In the sixteen to nineteen and adult education spheres the tertiary colleges may well prove to be an innovation as significant as the polytechnics. Like the polytechnics, with whom they already have close working relationships, they seek to be outward looking and are much concerned with the application of knowledge. They are having to rethink the aims and objectives of post-sixteen education at a time of retrenchment and concern about the improvement of Britain's economic performance. The seventies have been the decade of the emergence of tertiary colleges. The eighties may well be the decade of their recognition as the logical pattern for sixteen-plus education in a great many areas of the country, since they can provide an economic way of offering a wide range of courses to meet the needs of students and industry in an adult atmosphere appropriate to the latter part of the twentieth century.

Trends 1980/1

The educational value of non-educational television

Anthony Smith
Journalist, broadcaster and Director of the British Film Institute

Does television set out to educate, and if so does it succeed? Anthony Smith considers the question.

There was once a distinguished judge who, when asked at the age of seventy-six why he continued to read Greek every day, replied 'To improve my mind'. For many centuries the classics provided Western man with the opportunity to consider his own experience in relation to that of another civilization which had bequeathed its imagery and its most considered analyses of the world to later ages. The reconstruction of this meta-civilization, generation by generation within the modern world, was the task of the 'educated'. It did not seem possible – almost until this century – for the experience and the culture of the present to be codified, appreciated and criticized, except against the paradigms offered by this extraordinarily familiar but inaccessible *other* world of Greece and Rome. It did not fulfil the function of myth

so much as being a kind of separated sector of reality, which remained constant while all else moved through flux. Merely to immerse oneself in the texts, which were the evidence through which the classic world was re-experienced, was to 'improve the mind'. The classics were useful because they were moral and moral because they could be used.

Democratic education

The world of the classics, however, was the property of a select group – the educated – who derived from them a treasury of mutually shared allusion which could not, by its nature, be profferred beyond the group and was not capable of being democratized or surviving into an era when the process of education demanded a much more easily accessed body of allusion and a treasury of texts which were instantly available without the forced acquisition of special linguistic skills. The tasks of democratic education raised – so it seemed – quite different problems of communication, which had to be solved before the process of education could begin. We have to relate our experience to the past without stopping to acquire a vast stock of comparative material before we begin. In certain senses the content of the mass media – television in particular – provides us with a special construction of our own world which can be used for this purpose. The difference is that it is essentially disposable rather than constant and abiding; its imagery suggests rather than proclaims values; and it is offered more hesitantly. It is much harder work for the individual viewer who grows up with television as his or her main repository of data. It has to be read on so many different levels of credence. The viewer may sometimes be mystified by the repressed educativeness of much of the material, which is trying to infiltrate its message virtually by stealth. At the age of 76 our distinguished judge might well comment 'I am still *trying* to improve my mind' if he were caught watching a television programme rather than reading Greek.

The educated and the non-educated

It is scarcely surprising that television has thrown up a huge literature concerned with discovering whether or not the audience is learning anything. It is very difficult for the viewer to know. The single assumption upon which the entire construction of the television audience is founded is that it will disappear if it senses a tone of instruction. And yet a larger proportion of those responsible for the making of television have been well educated in a formal sense than of those creatively involved in the press, the cinema or the music industry. Television is, *par excellence*, that which the educated minority is prepared to offer the non-educated (in a formal sense). It embodies as precise a distinction between the educated and non-educated as any that existed in a world dominated by the classics. The language of its newsreaders and interviewers, of its documentarists and screen gurus, its playwrights and many of its entertainers, and especially of its management, is that of the democratically educated reaching out towards those who have not been educated much beyond secondary school. Any Martian attempting to use television content as sole evidence of the nature of our society would get a very lopsided view.

Entertainment

If one is trying, therefore, to summarize the educational effects of the general content of television, one must take as axiomatic that they are unintended, undirected, incidental and probably unconscious for both parties. The television system itself represses the overtly

educational. Television forms are constructed from attempts to *entertain* – i.e. to hold the audience through spectacle or suspense or by playing upon emotion. Each genre which has been developed in the medium shares the common concern for time economy; and every development of almost every genre over the last twenty years has partly or wholly consisted in the removal of unnecessary linkages between events: editors cut faster from scene to scene, leaving the viewer to realize the connections between characters, chains of action, plots and sub-plots. The connecting formulae of written genres have been progressively eliminated, to the point at which a modern television viewer has to be extremely sophisticated in the special codes of television. Compare any evening's television viewing of the 1950s and early 1960s with a typical evening of the 1970s. The same goes for the construction of journalistic programmes and discussions; they are today much better 'produced', in the sense that they contain fewer redundancies of material and express the purposes of the producer more vigorously. The viewer is placed in the position of the busy executive who demands all the relevant data on two sides of a piece of paper; he is really demanding the decision to be made for him – and it is.

Influence

Television, whatever the scientists have to tell us about its social and social-psychological effects, obviously packs an enormous quantity of images into the minds of an enormous number of people. They must absorb its epistemological rhythms; they must instinctively acquire the habits by which TV captures their presumed attention span and lays out its material so as to hold them for a given pattern of visual and verbal argument. It clearly plays a major role in shaping the sensibility and stating the available range of emotions in its relatively limited store of formulae. It is, of course, difficult to discover whether this is transferred into the psyche in such a way as to constitute an 'effect'. But whether it influences is different from whether it presents the viewer with information; and the latter it certainly does.

Guidance

Television aims to provide a complete re-constituted world and suggests a complete (though perhaps very narrow) range of available reactions to that world. What it does not do – and this is why its educational role must be thought of as severely limited – is provide the tools for comparison between the lived experience and the reconstituted one, for unlocking the offered emotional responses (the training in how to live in the reconstituted world), for making the connections between itself and life. Perhaps the greatest disappointment of television is that it offers less to adolescents than to any other age-group. This is precisely the group which feels the need for those skills of emotion and intellect that enable the individual to join his or her own stock of experience with that of the rest of society, but this is precisely the function which television performs least well and least often.

In its effort to balance its output so as to capture each section of the audience, television segregates its audience into age groups, classes, and other sectors. It is odd to think that the first great popular medium – the novel – was founded upon the discovery that people living in the new complex fragmented society of the city required simple social guidance, insight into the working of the emotions, which each individual had now to acquire through experiencing the world on his own. Yet television is so bad at this task. It is a great reproducer of the classics, it is a great disseminator of news, it helps the

whole of society to share in the great events of nationhood, it is a great activator and protector against bad government and malfeasance by companies, ministries and councillors, but it has never developed a genre that satisfyingly performs the vital educational function of tutoring the emotions, nor one that helps the viewer to use in the task of life the very material it stacks in his mind. Television fears its own power to intrude, perhaps.

Positive effects

Perhaps one of the best ways of discerning the positive educational effects of television is to look at the things it has failed to prevent. One of them is reading. The market for books has increased enormously in the era of television. Another is attendance at theatres, concert halls and exhibitions. Television, in consuming so large a proportion of discretionary time (and perhaps the whole of the discretionary time of certain sections of society), has not repressed the range of uses made of spare-time. People spend as much time reading newspapers as they did in the mid-fifties when the daily sale of newspapers reached its historic peak. The total time spent by a total society in the absorption of media has gone up slowly but in doing so has enabled the range of competing media and sources to multiply in number.

Television does *appear* to be enabling certain sectors to overcome previous television addiction and enter a more discriminating phase. Where a decade ago television appeared to be the great dragnet of time, it now seems to have a less than total grasp upon its audience; and yet the adult audience of today is the first which has passed through all the stages of early life in the shadow of the 'box'. Television's influence is much more like that of the church in the past: it clearly commands a certain important part of our lives in terms of time and attention, but its influence is mediated by a wide range of other experiences; it does not mould us, however much material it places in our imagination. It tries to shape our souls, it tries to maximize its own impact upon us, but it succeeds only differentially and the felt legitimacy of television's overall message is clearly less than that of the church (probably today, too).

Non-educational aspects

Despite the feeling that television, after all, does not *damage* our potential for education, there are aspects of the medium (and therefore of a society in which it is a dominant medium) which are evidently un – or non – or anti – educational. Television has been drawn into that contemporary demand for the instantaneous; it is news-oriented because it feeds upon its own material, upon what it finds it possible to extract from the world and place on record for its viewers. It is biased towards the now. Education is biased against the now; it must be if it chooses to define itself as anything more than the sediment left behind by the mass media. Where educational processes are all dependent upon our ability to consider, to compare, to wonder whether what has just been heard or seen might be better understood in the context of some other piece of information, television operates in the opposite direction. Television interprets history in the light of the present. It hangs programmes upon 'topical pegs'; it validates the past through its applicability to the immediate present. The whole work of education is to push the mind in a different direction and to that extent the various educational side-effects of television are profoundly qualified.

Reith left behind the feeling that broadcasting must somehow teach as it entertains; his heirs tend to apply the newspeak term 'educative' as a perfunctory substitute for 'educational'. Even though

television has not, as some predicted it would, utterly undermined the inherited culture, it would be foolish now to hope that television might evolve into some inexpensive and painless substitute; it cannot and will not restore those skills which need to be acquired through mental distancing, nor the pleasures to be derived from comparison and criticism.

Trends 1980/1

The anonymous classroom

P. Michael Reidy
English Department, Eltham College, London

Would pupils be more likely to look after their classrooms if they could associate themselves more closely with them? Michael Reidy thinks that they would and gives his reasons.

A great deal of attention has been given to the problems of the anonymous pupil in large schools: the quiet, hard-working one whose work is average and who demands the least attention, but who will become the backbone of future society.

I would like to take a brief look at the anonymous classroom. These low-maintenance, all-purpose rooms serve diverse age and ability groups in a variety of subjects each period of the day. The anonymous classrooms are the ones which are not purpose-built, generally designed for particular year groups, or as meeting places for particular teachers, classes or subjects.

Teachers

Teachers entering classrooms of this type are usually only concerned with three things: that the desks are where they want them; that everyone can see the board or the screen; and that it is suitable for audio-visual aids. Unless the litter is ankle deep, or it happens to be the teacher's own form room, the general level of maintenance is hardly noticed. I do not say this as a criticism of teachers, but rather as one who has been in such a room, waiting for pupils to arrive (ten minutes late) after the bell system has failed. Under such circumstances, it seems unfair (and a further waste of time) to berate the children for the state of the classroom they have just entered.

Pupil mobility

My major point is that untidiness, careless attitudes towards property, and vandalism increase with greater pupil mobility within the school; and a lack of pupil personal identification with the classrooms, and hence with the school, results.

In schools based on the eight-period day, the number of pupil moves each day is too great to be adequately supervised. During the eight-period day, with two registration periods and two breaks, each child can move up to twenty-four times. In a school of 1,000 pupils, that is 24,000 pupil moves a day; 120,000 a week; and over five million each academic year.

Is this wear and tear on the buildings necessary? Is this the best way physically to organize learning?

Teachers constantly remind pupils that these classrooms are 'theirs', and that they should take pride in their working conditions.

But it is not their classroom, it is one of eight or a dozen of their classrooms, all of which they may be told are theirs, and in which they will be nagged about damaging the furniture, writing on desks or walls, or leaving debris on the floor.

Purpose-built rooms

Purpose-built rooms have a decided advantage. The whole procedure of setting up laboratories and cleaning and storing equipment is integrated into the work itself. It does not sound unreasonable to pupils that all apparatus is carefully cleaned and stored. There are scientific reasons for doing this.

In craft shops there is the important factor of safety and also the practice for the 'real' world – many woodwork, metal, printing and automotive shops at schools are organized loosely on the industrial pattern, with specific clean-up and maintenance jobs assigned to pupils in rotation.

Nomads

But what about mathematics, history, or English classes? A pupil is in the room five times a week, and very often the class before him left in a hurry. The desks the pupils sit at may vary from day to day. The desks belong to no-one in particular anyway, for in very few schools do pupils actually leave things in desks. There is no sense of 'my room' or 'my desk'. Pupils are obliged to carry all their personal belongings around from place to place as though they were nomads. Individual lockers are no better than safe deposit boxes where the chances of things being stolen or damaged are less.

The solution does not lie in building artificial pride through imposed classroom cleanliness competitions, nor is anything permanent established by enforcing strict disciplinary policies against individuals or groups who fail to keep classrooms tidy.

Mere tidiness is not the issue here, but rather the identification of a pupil with his environment. School children often feel that their place in the world is tenuous. Everything seems geared for adults: driving, voting, drinking, smoking and certain films. These things are closed to children, and so much they understand. But the school is administrated by a vast hierarchy few of them comprehend, and we as teachers keep telling them, 'This is your school', or 'This is your classroom'. Yet in many cases, children are not even allowed to wear 'their own' clothes.

It seems that a vital link is missing if pupils do not have the base of security of their own desk, in which they can leave their things and at which they can work regularly.

Protection of property

The practical objection that 'things get nicked' does not seem to me an adequate reason for not devising a routine in which a pupil has one desk and classroom where he can do most of his work and assume the greater part of the responsibility for his surroundings.

As adults, we expect our property to be protected by society and government. The school is the child's society and government. I do not think it an unreasonable demand that the children expect teachers and supportive staff to make the necessary arrangements for their property to be protected.

The brunt of the work needed to produce such an environment falls on the designers of the timetable. No extra rooms should be needed to construct a system where all teaching, except classes which require purpose-built rooms, could be done in the form room.

Setting by ability is clearly not compatible with this proposal. However, a great many schools do not set until the third or fourth

year. By this time, if the proposed system were employed, children should have acquired the habits of responsibility and pride, so that even then the effects of the system should be noticeable in the year-groups that are ability-set.

Academic tube stations

Most people care for things which are their own, or are in their trust. I would venture to say that people are largely apathetic to places with which they have only a brief, seemingly accidental link. Classrooms are for pupils. They are not merely academic tube stations where pupils stop for forty minutes before rumbling off to another.

Classrooms are only barren and stripped of all breakable or valuable objects because there is no one who can be depended upon to look after them regularly. By structuring the timetable and room allocation this duty could, to a large extent, be handed over to the pupils, and stimulate a part of their moral development.

Children, not property

There will, no doubt, be resistance to the idea of making children sit at the same desks day in and day out. At one extreme, I suppose, the entire concept I have been reviving could be considered bourgeois in the extreme – engineering a possessive/protective attitude towards property. But what we are ultimately dealing with is children, not property. The property is of concern to me only as a part of the environment in which children grow up, and its relation to their intellectual, social and moral growth.

The lack of space will be the main stumbling block in trying to implement a system where pupils have classrooms and desks which are largely their own. The expanding diversity of subjects necessitates the formation of many smaller groups, sets or mixtures of classes.

Perhaps we must ask ourselves which is more important – a pupil's personal association with the school, or the provision of a broad curriculum for what is to be a diminishing number of pupils? There are those who maintain that a wide range of subjects paradoxically results in a narrower education, because it can restrict future decisions from an earlier age. This dilemma is one which will have to be resolved by individual schools on the basis of their own aims, staff and facilities. However, it is a decision which must be deliberately taken.

While relevant, the question of curriculum is an issue not central to my thesis that pupil movement should and, with careful planning, could be substantially reduced.

Improve surroundings

To remove the child from anything over which he feels he has a little power or control is to hinder that part of his nature which naturally wants to improve his surroundings. The school, as a whole, is too big for him to identify with. The sheer number of different rooms in which he learns is so great as to fragment the desire to improve the environment, so that in the end he does nothing, or the minimal amount.

What happens to pupils after they enter secondary school? is a frequently asked question. It covers the spectrum of knowledge and child development. But more to the point: why is primary school vandalism extremely rare and secondary school vandalism a natural occurrence? It is not because primary children are angelic and secondary pupils devilish. It is not a natural growing away from order, although there is an element of adolescent rebelliousness involved. I think that part of the answer lies in the pupil's detachment from the school and any direct, effective and noticeable contribution to it.

Responsibilities

Children, in my experience, rise to responsibilities which have some relation to their own immediate lives. Responsibilities that are merely caretaker-type jobs (closing windows, turning off lights, locking doors, etc.) are chores, not actions which can be seen as an investment in the child's own working conditions.

The anonymous classroom could lead to the anonymous city centre, the anonymous housing estate and an anonymous life in which one sees one's own contribution to society as too insignificant to be worth making. The known classroom is not the answer to these problems, nor is it the end of the problems of alienation in schools. But it could prove a step in the right direction.

Trends 1980/1

Cooperation in Europe through international bodies

John Banks
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'Education is then like to be fruitfull, when suited to the probable after-employment of those instructed.'
The Moderate Intelligencer, 5–12 February 1646

*An article commenting on the main trends in educational cooperation at the European level in the past two years, and pinpointing some of the broad developments that have taken place in the various programmes.**

What are the shared aims of international bodies who cooperate in education in Europe? Answers vary from the philosophical – the pursuit of international understanding and brotherhood and a united Europe—to the economic – the creation of national wealth and the growth of international trade. Which aim is being fulfilled by the kind of cooperation undertaken by each European organization at present is a difficult question. The organizations themselves are always responding to changing political and economic forces, in the same way that the goals of educators change in each of the member countries. It is worth noting that for each of the international bodies, with the exception of UNESCO, education is far from being their principal activity and in nearly all cases it is a relatively recent addition to their main functions. The Council of Europe, for example, is probably better known for its work in the field of human rights than it is for its role in education. At the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) the education programme

* This article is an edited version of the introduction to: Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education. *European Educational Cooperation. Activities of UNESCO, OECD, the Council of Europe, the European Economic Community and the Nordic Council of Ministers.* (A report to the Eleventh Session of the Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education held in the Hague 10–13 June 1979.) Copies of the report can be obtained free from the DES.

has recently become more closely linked with work on employment issues, but it still plays a small part compared with the organization's work on questions of economic development and resources.

Similarities

Against this background it may seem surprising that their programmes have so much in common, particularly when the diversity of size and composition of the international groupings responsible for them are also taken into account. But the similarities are misleading: similarity of programme title does not mean that a similar type of work is being done. The international bodies generally approach a given field from different perspectives: their styles of operation vary to reflect their different origins, purposes and strengths. Nonetheless their programmes do show signs of converging more, and there appear to be two main causes for this. The first is that recent major economic changes have affected nearly all the countries in Europe in a similar way at roughly the same time; the second is that the commitment to building 'Europe', in a political and social sense, has weakened – an aim which would otherwise make the programmes of the Council of Europe and the EEC rather distinctive.

Economic difficulties

The effect on education policies of the widespread economic difficulties following the 1973 oil price rise can only be traced roughly as yet. But what is significant, in the present context, is that the effects were so similar and so simultaneous in so many countries. There were, of course, differences in the severity of the changes in policy that followed, but most countries saw a reduction in the pace of economic growth and increasing pressure to reduce public expenditure over a wide range of fields, including education. As the recession continued, governments became increasingly concerned about the long-term effects of much higher rates of unemployment, and ministers of education and employment were engaged in efforts to alleviate the effects of this among young people, who, in some cases, seemed likely to spend long periods out of work.

In education, it was not only budgets that came under pressure. The theory and practice of education itself began to enter a new phase, whether this was a consequence of the change in economic climate or was caused by other factors, it is hard to say. Confidence in social policy planning in the past few years seems to have been set back by the apparent inability of economists to meet expectations in their management of the post-oil-crisis world economy – and macro-economics had seemed hitherto a fairly securely established social policy field. Some of this loss of theoretical credibility may perhaps have rubbed off on education. It would appear too that the pressures of uncertainty about the future development of the European economy and society have both drained confidence in, and taken attention from, longer-term or more theoretical thinking in fields such as education. The problems of today have a greater urgency than before: some aspirations for tomorrow have had to be laid aside.

Declining birth rate

The second major factor of almost universal impact is the decline in the birth-rate. For nearly everyone concerned with education, whether as a teacher or as a planner, the changes now following on the dramatic fall in pupil population seem likely to have a major influence on thinking in education for as far ahead as we can see. Whether the changes appear as problems or opportunities, they will be certain to make the 1980s as unlike the 1970s as that decade was unlike the 1960s.

For cooperation in education they are of real importance, because they affect so many countries at the same time. In the light of this, it would be useful to see joint study of how education policies should be adjusted to accommodate them.

The micro-processor

Meanwhile, a third change also deserves mention – the arrival of the micro-processor, which seems likely to bring about a multitude of social and economic changes, both positive and negative. At the moment it still lies in the future, but if its likely effects are at present less easy to quantify or assess than the other two factors just mentioned, its impact will surely be as pervasive and important for educational policies. For cooperation in education, it, too, may offer great scope, in that the impact will be affecting so many countries in similar ways.

Against these incentives towards cooperation in adapting national policies to shared problems must be set a less encouraging factor. The incentive to cooperate in education derived from the need to build up the idea and reality of a united Europe. It has exercised a very powerful influence in the past, and some would see it as the foundation on which all the programmes are based. But it has to be recognized that the impetus in the last year or so has fallen off, and that if cooperation in education rested on it, the overall picture would be less encouraging than it is.

Pre-primary and primary

The information provided by the international organizations involved shows that hardly any work is now being done at the international level in primary education. The Council for Cultural Cooperation (CCC) is completing three years' intensive work on the pre-school stage which has included studies on the needs of migrant families' children, disadvantaged groups (including those in isolated rural areas), and the physically and mentally handicapped. Cooperation between parents, the pre-school and the community, and links between pre-school and primary education have also been studied. In the OECD programme work is proceeding on five aspects of pre-school provision, with an accent on cooperation between services, management, participation and training.

Compulsory education

In compulsory education, after the primary stage the current shift of emphasis is characterized by the OECD project – Basic Education – where a fresh look is being taken at the purposes and social context of compulsory secondary education for the majority, with particular attention to such functions as control, management, assessment, failure and under-achievement.

Some other specific initiatives deserve mention. UNESCO reflects current interest in 'education for international understanding'. The EEC has prepared proposals to support teaching about Europe and the European Community and on the possibility of adapting existing schools to develop a specific European identity, but both await Ministerial consideration.

The CCC and the EEC have programmes on the education of migrant workers' children. The EEC and OECD programmes also include studies of education provision for girls and women, the results of which were published in 1978.

School to work

The Nordic Council* chapter in the report of the eleventh session of the Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education notes: 'It is established that the extent of unemployment among young people has a direct connection with their level of education and training. School drop-outs and those lacking vocational training run the greatest risk of being unemployed'. Not only is this the basis for a major Nordic study, it is also the central feature of the EEC international programme, with twenty-eight pilot projects related to different aspects of the problem.

The concentration of work in this area at the European level is now quite noticeable, and reflects clearly the concern of governments to re-examine their policies for pupils who leave school at – or in some cases, effectively before – the minimum school-leaving age, thus running the greatest risk of unemployment. Probably for most European countries, this is the first time that so much public and professional attention has been concentrated on developing curricula and styles of teaching that will engage the interest of the less motivated and less-able pupil. In the same way, teachers with experience in careers guidance, and schools with a good record in careers education have become the subject of great attention.

The EEC programme is focused on six themes. Two of them (the development of guidance and counselling, and the improvement of vocational preparation) are also headings in the 'Youth Unemployment' work programme envisaged by OECD, and care will be needed to avoid a duplication of activities. CCC work will include cooperation between non-EEC countries in careers guidance.

The different styles of work of the international bodies in this field deserve notice. As with other Nordic work, the Nordic Council's aim is to prepare a cooperative study which may suggest useful directions for further action by individual countries. The EEC reports that 'the most original aspect of the (pilot-project) programme is the introduction of continuous evaluation and a cooperative learning process'. The OECD programme will be a mixture of policy studies, case-studies of good practice and digests of research and development. The CCC programme is a series of case-studies, produced after short visits to selected sites by international 'expert' groups.

This well illustrates the scope for several bodies to tackle the same area without duplication. Positive reinforcement of each others' projects should be aimed at, so that the results of each programme are made known to as wide an audience as possible at all levels, internationally and nationally. This can be achieved by making reference to other organizations' work and results.

Upper secondary education

There is less international contact on issues in upper secondary education at the moment, because of the shift of attention towards the question of youth unemployment. Moreover, international comparison in regard to technical training has not proved easy, because of the diversity of national patterns of provision. On the other hand, pressure is already being felt on the traditional pattern of upper secondary provision in schools and this has been reflected in recent OECD work. As school rolls fall, the problem seems likely to grow more acute.

* The Nordic Council, based in Stockholm, was founded in 1953 as an advisory body working on the basis of the Treaty of Cooperation between Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden. It advises these countries on economic, social, cultural, environmental, legal and communications questions, and since 1971 has also acted as an advisory body to the Nordic Council of Ministers.

Basic education statistics

Public Sector in England and Universities in Great Britain

		Academic Years			
		1967–68	1975–76	1976–77	1977–78
Schools					
Nursery:	Number of schools	425	564	579	593
	Number of pupils (thousands)	28	46	48	49
Primary:	Number of schools	20,891	21,394	21,414	21,372
	Number of pupils under 5 (thousands)	202	395	384	367
	Number of pupils aged 5 and over (thousands)	4,179	4,452	4,387	4,275
	Pupil/teacher ratio	28·1	24·0	23·9	23·6
Secondary:	Number of schools	5,222	4,728	4,734	4,711
	Number of pupils (thousands)	2,714	3,700	3,799	3,851
	Percentage in comprehensives	19·3	74·8	79·3	83·4
	Pupil/teacher ratio	18·1	17·0	17·0	16·9
Special:	Number of schools	822[1]	1,432	1,468	1,480
	Number of pupils (thousands)	73[1]	121	122	124
School leavers:	Percentage with				
	No GCE or CSE attempts	..	15·1	13·5	13·0
	5 or more higher grade O-level/ CSEs[2], but no A-levels	8·0	8·5	9·2	9·3
	2 or more A-levels	12·2	12·8	12·4	12·6
Teachers	Full-time in maintained nursery, primary and secondary schools	276,963	404,201	408,393	410,808
	Full-time in maintained and assisted further education establishments	48,174	69,447	69,572	69,990
Major establishments of further education – total student enrolments (thousands)		1,869·1[1]	2,031·1[1]	1,845·2	1,813·0
of which					
Full-time and sandwich		317·0[1]	486·2[1]	476·3	472·4
Part-time day		740·8[1]	743·3[1]	672·8	676·2
Evening only		811·3[1]	801·6[1]	696·2	664·4
Percentage of full-time and sandwich students in polytechnics		..	20·1[1]	23·3	24·5
niversity full-time students in Great Britain (thousands)		200·1	261·3	271·8	280·5
Open University students in United Kingdom (thousands)		..	56·0	61·2	66·1
Participation in full-time education (as a percentage of age group)					
2–4 schools including assisted and independent[3]		11·5[1]	24·7[1]	23·3	25·3
16–18 in schools including assisted and independent/ colleges and universities		30·5[1]	29·2[1]	29·9	29·9
19–20 in further education/teacher training colleges		5·8[1]	8·1[1]	8·1	7·5
19–20 in universities (participation in Great Britain)		4·8	6·6	6·7	6·9
Expenditure (financial years)					
Total: at constant (1978 survey) prices £million		5,169[1]	6,750	6,800	6,628
as percentage of Gross National Product[4]		5·1	6·4	6·2	5·7

[1] England and Wales.
[2] O-level grades A–C and CSE grade 1.
[3] Each part-time pupil counted as one.
[4] UK public expenditure on education (including school meals and milk) as a percentage of the UK Gross National Product (at market prices.)

Detailed statistics of education (in seven annual volumes) are on sale at HMSO bookshops. Summary statistics (facts cards) relating to each of the seven volumes are available free on request from the DES Statistics Branch (Telephone 01–928 9222 ext 2776).

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

The Jordanhill Project in International Understanding

Arguments in favour of education for international understanding have been and continue to be made. Existing school curricula – notably in the social subjects – tend, it is said, to be heavily weighted towards local, regional and national affairs. In syllabus construction, insufficient account is taken of the fact that contemporary British society is pluralistic and multicultural by nature. It is somewhat ironic that a nation such as the United Kingdom, heavily dependent on world trade and a member of international groups such as the Commonwealth and the EEC, should seem to lack world orientation; this is unfortunately reflected in school curricula. The reluctance to scrutinize and replace unduly ethnocentric curricula may be attributable to a number of factors, not least of which is the difficulty of aptly defining those fields of knowledge that are known variously as international education, development education and world studies.

Problems

Other obstacles that may tend to become insurmountable during a period of severe economic stringency include the overcrowded curriculum, the absence of a professional workforce capable of presenting the subject matter in the classroom and inadequate financial resources to help mount in-service courses. There is also the problem of enabling teachers to have access to adequate supplies of suitable classroom materials.

This list of difficulties could easily be extended, but to lay stress on educational problems and economic constraints is to offer an excuse for inaction; in cases of this sort there is a need to bridge the offensive gulf between rhetoric and purposeful activity. Although daunting, the field of education for international understanding does have, I would contend, an urgent and challenging educational purpose and is one that ought to be set in a fresh curricular perspective. In this there are clear implications for educational structures, for teacher education and for appropriate resource provision. One response to this challenge is the project widely known as the Jordanhill Project in International Understanding (JPIU).

Background

In September 1976 copies of the 1974 UNESCO *Recommendation Concerning Education for International Understanding** were sent by the Scottish Education Department (SED) together with SED Circular 962† to official correspondents of colleges of education, local education authorities and other bodies in Scotland. The SED circular, like its DES counterpart‡, invited a response in terms of measures taken to implement the recommendation.

The response of Jordanhill College, with the assured support of the Department of Education of Strathclyde Regional Council, was to put proposals to fund a major research and educational development project to the Advisory Committee on Development Education (ACDE) at the then Ministry of Overseas Development (ODM). Simultaneously, Jordanhill applied to the UK National Commission of UNESCO at ODM to become an institution linked to the UNESCO Associated Schools Project, which is a worldwide network of schools and colleges concerned with the promotion of education for international understanding. Subsequently, in the autumn of 1977, the ACDE gave approval for the allocation of financial resources, permitting the project, which relates closely to the 1974 UNESCO Recommendation, to begin.

The project programme

The participation of secondary schools in the project since it began in 1977 has allowed emphasis to be placed on the development of approaches to the new SCE O-Grade

* UNESCO. *Recommendation Concerning Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms.* Paris: UNESCO, 1974.

† Scottish Education Department. *UNESCO Recommendation: Education for International Understanding.* Circular 962.

‡ Department of Education and Science and the Welsh Office. *UNESCO Recommendation: Education for International Understanding.* Circulars 9/76 and 142/76.

syllabus in modern studies* and, notably, the component known as the special study which is subject to internal assessment; and on the design of approaches to international understanding and their application in junior mixed-ability modern-studies classes.

The construction of inter-disciplinary courses on topics appropriate to international understanding was envisaged as an optional and additional activity. In this instance the core subject would again be modern studies but attempts to engage the active participation of teachers of other subjects would be encouraged. Particular attention would be allocated to the needs of children with learning difficulties.

Since 1977, working groups of practising teachers from secondary schools, college staff and education officers from bodies concerned with development education have prepared and attempted to validate teaching programmes and materials. Once the availability of programmes and materials is assured, contact with additional schools and groups of teachers will be made to disseminate validated materials in order to generate enthusiasm and commitment to education for international understanding.

The last stage in the project's programme is to harness audio-visual media in order to promote a wider interest in education for international understanding in schools and elsewhere. In particular, on a college basis, as part of the UNESCO Associated Schools Project, closed-circuit television (CCTV) programmes are being produced to extend effective development education throughout the secondary curriculum in Scotland.

Schools' participation

Initially, nine secondary schools in Strathclyde Region were invited to participate in the project; this number subsequently rose to twelve. In inviting schools to contribute to the project, certain criteria were used:

each had to be a school in which modern studies was known to be established, since it was through that uniquely Scottish subject that topics appropriate to the UNESCO Recommendation were most likely to be implemented;

modern studies departments in the selected schools must be known to be interested in developing curricular materials and approaches to the modern studies syllabus, notably in relation to the new SCE O-Grade syllabus and also in the first two years of secondary education;

schools were to be drawn from each of the six educational divisions of Strathclyde, due consideration being paid to the size of the school's roll, its catchment area and character.

Since the autumn of 1977, a team of thirty teachers and college staff has tackled themes including 'The Emergent Nation', 'Human Rights', 'The Development Process', 'Interdependence', 'Conflict', 'Cooperation' and 'Choices for the Future'.

Progress

In the two and a half years since October 1977 when the project began, the following objectives have been reached:

In all of the original nine schools a first piloting of materials appropriate to the SCE O-Grade syllabus has been completed. In the majority of cases the results are encouraging, but a second pilot exercise in secondary schools not involved with the JPIU is taking place during the present school session. It is perhaps of interest to note that the majority of schools have chosen to interpret their theme in the context of the new SCE O-Grade special study – the component of the new syllabus which is designed by the school and internally assessed.

Two of three CCTV programmes planned for production in 1977–80 have been completed by the Audio Visual Media Department at Jordanhill and the first has been widely shown to teacher audiences throughout Western Europe. The second programme, which communicates examples of classroom practice, the application of materials to the SCE O-Grade syllabus and teacher/student reaction, was first

* Modern studies is a multi-disciplinary social subject with a contemporary focus which deploys skills drawn selectively from history, geography, politics, economics and sociology. It was established in the Scottish secondary school curriculum in 1959; fully twenty years later, modern studies was the obvious curricular vehicle to harness in relation to the JPIU project.

shown at the World Studies Teacher Education Network Conference in September 1979. The third programme, which will draw upon teachers' and children's experience in their first two years of secondary school, is due to be completed during the school session 1979–80.

Information on the project has, since January 1978, been disseminated by means of some 400 bi-monthly Project Progress Reports which are sent to interested individuals throughout the United Kingdom and elsewhere and also to such bodies as the Consultative Committee on the Curriculum, the Council of Europe, the EEC and UNESCO.

Teachers have made varied and innovative approaches to their chosen topic and the range and quality of classroom materials has noticeably improved as teachers have come to appreciate the value of professionally produced graphic materials.

Since October 1977, when the inaugral meeting of teachers and college staff participating in the project took place at Jordanhill, twice termly planning and policy-formation meetings held during the school day have been interspersed with visits by college tutors to the JPIU schools. Teachers have given freely of their time and a considerable amount of creative and purposeful activity has been generated over the period. Educational spin-offs and unpredicted bonuses have been both numerous and significant. The BBC in Scotland has, on the recommendation of the Schools Broadcasting Council, agreed to produce four radio programmes in 1980–81 to complement JPIU materials; a new project; 'International Understanding in the Primary School', has just been launched. As a result several of the constraints to the advancement of education for international understanding identified earlier have been tackled and in many cases removed.

O. J. Dunlop
Director
Jordanhill Project in International Understanding

'Preparation for Life' and Modern Language Teaching—the Work of the Council for Cultural Cooperation

The Council of Europe's work on education and culture is managed by the Council for Cultural Cooperation (the CCC), in which the organization's twenty-one* member states are joined by Finland and the Holy See. The CCC seeks to:

bring new ideas, techniques and achievements from any one member country to the notice of all;

study questions that have been identified as important by the European Ministers of Education;

increase contacts and cooperation between European educators;

develop mutual aid among member states;

make the peoples of Europe aware of their common heritage and of their common responsibilities.

It is not possible in such a short article to describe in detail the CCC's entire programme, which ranges from projects connected with school education to a scheme enabling teachers to attend short in-service training courses in other member states. I have concentrated here on two aspects of the work – the 'Preparation for Life' project and cooperation to improve the teaching of modern languages.

'Preparation for Life'

The main item in the CCC's work on secondary education is a project called 'Preparation for Life'. The field of study covered by the project is one of the most crucial periods in the life of every young person – the two or three years just before

* Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany, France, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey and the United Kingdom.

and after the end of compulsory education. During these years, which correspond to the years between fourteen and nineteen in many Western European countries, young people have to take important and sometimes irrevocable decisions about their future. The aim of the project is to identify how secondary education can help young people in this age group to make informed choices about their future and give them a good all-round preparation for adult life. The five sub-themes of the project are:

preparation for personal development;

preparation for life in society and in a democracy;

preparation for working life;

preparation for further studies and training;

preparation for cultural life.

An original feature of the project is that it does not rely exclusively on two of the traditional tools of intergovernmental co-operation – questionnaires and meetings of experts. Instead, great importance has been attached to visits to schools and other interested bodies. For example, in the study of preparation for working life there have been visits to the Youthways Project in Ulster and to the Education for the Industrial Society Project in Scotland. A report is published after each visit.

Another original feature is an action programme on the needs of member states in Southern Europe – a group which is sometimes overlooked in European cooperation in education. The programme, which was drawn up by carefully chosen representatives of these countries, covers:

preparation for life in society and in a democracy;

careers education and the training of staff who provide it;

technological education and the training of teachers of technology.

The results of the project will be submitted to a large-scale conference, which will be held in Strasbourg in the autumn of 1981. It will be attended by representatives of interested ministries, other international organizations such as the European Community and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, non-governmental organizations and perhaps young people themselves.

Modern languages

For many years, the teaching of modern languages has occupied a special place in the CCC's programme because of its importance in improving communication between Europeans. At present, the CCC is looking at the definition of a 'threshold level' in a modern language. This 'threshold level', which should ideally be attained after a three-year course, states what learners need to be able to do in a foreign language, and sets out the language functions and notions which they need to communicate competently in speech and writing.

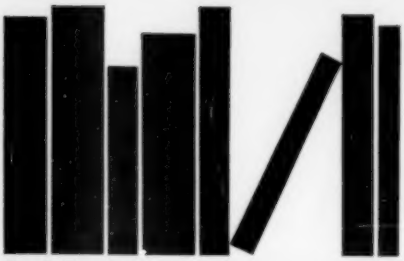
In 1978, the threshold level for the learning of English as a foreign language was published by Longman, and comparable studies for the teaching of French in schools and for the teaching of German, Italian and Spanish to adults are in preparation.

Mention should also be made of the CCC's Plan for the Development of Modern Language Teaching in Turkey. Between 1968 and 1978, the CCC – in cooperation with the Federal Republic of Germany, France and the United Kingdom – helped the Turkish authorities to improve language teaching in Turkey by producing completely new sets of school textbooks for the teaching of English, French and German (over sixty textbooks were produced under the plan) and by sending key Turkish teachers, teacher-trainers and inspectors on study tours to other member states.

The CCC is now helping the Turkish authorities with the organization of seminars and workshops for language teachers and the teaching of modern languages by radio.*

* If readers require further information on these projects or any other projects carried out by the CCC, they should write to: The School Education Division, The Directorate of Education, Culture and Sport, Council of Europe, F–67006 STRASBOURG CEDEX, France.

Maitland Stobart
Head of the School Education Division
Council of Europe



Book Reviews

Mother tongue to English. The young child in the multicultural school
Daphne M. Brown
Cambridge University Press £2·95 paperback
The West Indian language issue in British schools: challenges and responses
V. K. Edwards
Routledge and Kegan Paul £6·95 hardback, £3·50 paperback

These two books look at language issues which are currently being discussed by teachers but which, as yet, have not been satisfactorily resolved to the point where a consensus has been arrived at and a common understanding achieved.

Central to Daphne Brown's work is an examination of the first few weeks' progress of two Bangla Deshi brothers – Asad and Suba – who enter an infant school as non-English speakers at five-and-a-half and six-and-a-half years of age. This part of the book relates, in fascinating detail, the actual utterances of the two boys in Bengali and English and to whom these utterances were made, as well as recording attempts made to speak to them by other children and adults. What emerges is a picture of two desperately isolated youngsters lacking the opportunity of communication even with each other, since they were placed in different classes where there were no other Bengali-speaking pupils. It may be surprising that, having been thrown in at the deep end, they did not make rapid progress in English out of sheer desperation, but the evidence is to the contrary. After fifty days an absolute minimum of English vocabulary was being used with virtually no use of structural words or phrases.

Viv Edward's book is a careful analysis of West Indian Creoles and describes the Creole-standard continuum which ranges from basilect through mesolect to acrolect. Acrolect is quite close to standard English but still has particular Creole characteristics which support the view being suggested here that Creoles are not just dialects of English but languages in their own right. There are also practical suggestions as to how teachers might take advantage of the spoken language children bring to school to further pupils' confidence in themselves and to develop their use of standard English.

While both authors are unable to resist entering the general multicultural curriculum development debate, and perhaps spend too much time giving background information about migrant groups which by now is somewhat dated because of the length of time most families have lived in Britain (and this presents both writers with problems of definition), there are important issues raised. Substantial numbers of children are now entering schools as non-English speakers, although they were born in Britain. For example, there are increasing numbers of Chinese families living in small groups in rural areas and small towns as well as in major cities, in addition to which there is a regular flow of refugees.

The central message of Daphne Browne's book is that children actively need to be taught English as a second language, however young they may be, if they are to achieve satisfactory progress in school. It is clear from Viv Edwards' account that the issue of Creole usage in schools is a complex one, and needs to take account of parental sensitivities as well as the perceived language requirements of children. Teachers reading this work can be left in no doubt about the importance of recognizing the specific Creole components of pupils' speech, and not confusing them with incorrect English.

Both books serve a valuable purpose in highlighting areas where initial and in-service teacher training are necessary, as well as underlining the need for more detailed studies of the developing language issues in an evolving multicultural society.
P. SINGH

Teaching and learning as a communication process
Philip Hills
Croom Helm £8·50 hardback

After sketching the general development of educational thought and practice, the author adumbrates, chapter by chapter, aspects of

communication processes such as the psychological, the verbal/non-verbal and the audio-visual. At the end he presents a neat summary of his main points.

Philip Hills does not succeed in making the familiar new. His book has a disconcertingly bathetic quality; the reader turns the pages hoping for the breakthrough from an essentially descriptive level to one that is more penetrative and analytical, but remains disappointed. Deeper issues are hinted at but not explored. At times, the book lurches dangerously towards banality; perhaps Mr Hills recognizes this himself for he says in the section on teacher-talk that, 'Like many things in the teaching/learning process this appears obvious when it is written down'. Unfortunately, many things in this book were so obvious before they were 'written down' that they required no further advertisement. At best, this book may serve to remind the teacher of his or her own crucial role as an exemplar of communication skills; at worst, it may weary the reader by its solemn underlining of that which needs no declaration. In communicating, let us look at the worth of the message as well as the process. After all, the information that 'when a dialogue takes place people take it in turns to speak', is, like much in this book, unlikely to extend the horizons of the reader's knowledge.

DAVID SHORT

Consumer education: a resources handbook for teachers

Consumer's Association £3·95 paperback

The introduction to this book makes a plea for the inclusion of consumer education in the curriculum and gives evidence of its relevance to many subjects. The three clearly defined objectives are to give information about consumer affairs, and to provide inspiration and suggestions as well as a reference list required for teaching the subject. There is a useful guide to survey techniques and an explanation of abbreviations and terms used.

There are five chapters. The sixty-four topics included in the first chapter cover a wide range of subject. They are listed in alphabetical order with suggested activities and cross references to other topics and chapters. The activities under each topic should appeal to both boys and girls and link up with current studies. Chapter Two lists in alphabetical order the organizations which produce resources and teaching aids. This is a useful though limited resource bank. The following three chapters include a brief guide to the laws and the Codes of Practice, and explain the difference between criminal and civil law and the self-regulatory and statutory Codes of Practice. This is well supported with a further reading section and a chapter grouping the main organizations concerned with consumer protection.

This is a useful reference manual for teachers introducing consumer education into the syllabus, although they will need to supplement it with other resources if they are to keep up to date with consumer information. Little guidance is given on how to develop consumer skills, in order to help pupils to develop positive attitudes as consumers with rights and obligations.

P. WALTERS

On our side – order, authority and interaction in school

Gerald Haigh (editor)

Temple Smith £6·00 hardback, £2·75 paperback

This symposium, edited by Gerald Haigh, considers the problem of order and authority in schools and the interaction between pupils and teachers. It is aimed at practising teachers of all age groups. The most important message, which has certainly been confirmed by the research of Michael Rutter and his team*, is that school is important and that in a caring community discipline and relationships between teachers and pupils are likely to be much better than in a harshly authoritarian environment. This review can do no more than pinpoint some of the factors which it is suggested help to create such a community.

There is trenchant advice from a headmaster on how to cope with difficult parent, wilting probationer and classroom pest, as well as clear recognition that good physical conditions are a necessary prerequisite of any

* See Rutter, Michael, Barbara Maughan, Peter Mortimore and Janet Ouston, with Alan Smith. *Fifteen Thousand Hours: Secondary Schools and their Effects on Children*. London: Open Books, 1979.

well-ordered school. Other factors highlighted in later articles include the need for good organization and structure, an atmosphere which encourages participation and trust and a teaching style which accepts that learning is a collaborative effort on the part of teacher and pupils. There is good practical advice from the college tutor on how to breathe reality into the student teacher's studies in college, as well as pedagogic advice for work in the classroom.

The editor's own contribution emphasizes the desirability of ensuring that in school a system of rewards exists which accords with the social attitudes of the majority of the inmates. In this way cultural dissonance will be avoided. The obvious danger of a monocultural curriculum is perhaps best seen in the school with a high proportion of children from ethnic minorities.

Carlton Duncan has much shrewd advice to offer the teacher embarking on a career in such a school. Inevitably the quality of the articles is somewhat uneven, but generally the book is to be recommended.
PETER GARWOOD

Education for uncertainty
Edmund J. King (editor)
Sage £12.00 hardback, £4.95 paperback

This is the second yearbook in the series *Annual Review of Social and Educational Change* which is produced by Sage Publications.

In his introduction the editor states that all of a sudden there is a great loss of confidence in educational institutions and there are widespread misgivings about the aims and roles they have set themselves. The ten contributors acknowledge this 'crisis in education' as an opportunity to take stock and review the causes of the dilemma. The theme throughout the book is 'uncertainty' – not only the uncertainty of the future facing pupils when they leave school or college but also the uncertainty that surrounds the whole teaching profession.

Section One presents a general analysis of the basic causes of the present state of confusion – a confusion that has followed two decades of rapid expansion in education with its high promises of rewards to society.

The contributors in Section Two review the problems within the institutions and analyse the reasons why many carefully thought-out innovations either failed or resulted in confusion. In a brief review it is perhaps unwise to point out specific items, nevertheless certain reasons for failure are listed by more than one contributor in Sections Two and Four – school procedures that are out-of-date, confusion over the aims and the means of evaluation, curricula that are restricted by 'subject-bound' syllabuses and the image of being professional that supports self-contained classroom work.

Section Three, 'The Changing World of Work', has some interesting references to the problems of vocational schools in Germany and France and a chapter demonstrating the effects of changing governmental policies on education in Tanzania during the past fifteen years.

In Section Four, 'Responses within Education', the contributors offer definite pointers to help with curriculum planning and teaching in secondary schools and institutions for further education.

Although each chapter is worth serious study, it is the contributions in Sections Two and Four that will be of most help to practising teachers. There is much discussion at the present time about staff development, in-service training and the lack of funds to carry out desirable programmes. If teachers individually, or in groups, studied some of these papers and perhaps one or two of the books given in the reference bibliography, they would be in a strong position to help themselves and their institutions to remove some of the needless uncertainty that is demoralizing the whole of the teaching profession at the present time.
G. M. MILBURN

Psychopedagogy: psychological theory and the practice of teaching
E. Stones
Methuen £8·95 hardback, £4·95 paperback

Notwithstanding its claim to have created a new field of study, this book is one of a long line which, with varying success, attempts to link psychological research to pedagogical problems in a form coherent to teacher and student alike. As such, the book must be judged on the relevance of the research and the clarity of its presentation. On the first count, there is a range of findings from British, American, Russian and other sources that are logically linked to teaching. These

are organized to give a cognitive approach to learning. On the second, while there is much useful discussion, there is sometimes lax referencing and limited use has been made of classroom examples. Additionally, the lack of detailed discussion of personality and individual differences – matters of interest to teachers – may also serve to limit the appeal of the book.

The publication first discusses the foundations of learning, chiefly from a behaviourist's viewpoint, before considering language and human learning and their relationship to action. Piagetian theory and the rather different ideas of Vigotsky, Luria, Bruner and others are discussed and pedagogical implications outlined. There follows a discussion of educational objectives which relies on the early work of Bloom and his associates, before the author considers problem solving and the teaching of a variety of skills. Finally, the question of evaluation is given due stress.

A curate's egg of a book. Its cognitive approach to the problems of teaching and learning will commend it to many concerned with education. Those who seek a more extensive treatment of affective matters, which can be the mainsprings of learning, may find it of less value.

G. J. NEAL

The condition of English schooling
Henry Pluckrose and Peter Wilby
Penguin £1·25 paperback

This collection of essays is interesting and provocative in parts but ultimately unsatisfactory. The twenty-two contributors are a mixed bag, including educationists, a Conservative MP, a journalist, an actress and two sixth formers. The editors describe the book as an attempt 'to illustrate the complexity of the issues which face education'. It is not, however, clear to whom the demonstration is addressed.

The chapters 'What is Progressive?' and 'Maths and the Modern World' are explanations of current practice that might be of interest to the parents of primary school children. Other chapters, possibly directed towards LEA advisers and head teachers, prescribe the comprehensive curriculum of the future and weigh both the advantages and disadvantages of mixed-ability teaching against streaming, setting and banding.

In one of the two most interesting chapters in the book Bob Bell, an Open University lecturer in educational studies, suggests a radical alternative for funding education in schools. Anxious to 'lessen the demands made by the school on the pupils' time' he advocates additional voluntary classes, for which fees would be paid, for hobbies and academic coaching. In the second, Sir Geoffrey Warnock questions whether non-selective schooling will continue to be able to meet the present thresholds of university admission. Although some parts of the book are polemic only thinly disguised as description, on the whole it is successful in showing the great variety of perceptions currently held about English education.

G. M. V. ALEXANDER

Children as writers: 20th year. Winning entries in the W. H. Smith Children's Literary Competition
Heinemann £1·95 paperback

The introduction to this fascinating anthology urges us to take children's imaginative writing seriously. Surely we should do so, for we can learn much from their insights and evident pleasure in handling language. We must, therefore, be grateful to the judges of the 20,000 entries for the W. H. Smith Children's Literary Competition for giving us such a stimulating range of prose and poetry.

It is only possible to note a couple of entries which impress by their perceptiveness and thoughtfulness. Markus Natten, in 'Childhood', asks pointedly, 'When did my childhood go?'. One of his answers must cause any older reader to pause introspectively: 'Was it the time I realised that adults were not All they seemed to be . . .'.

The theme of coming to terms with growing up is shared by a number of writers. All are thoughtful and well able to convey convincingly the sense of exploration, questioning and frustration.

Against these more introspective and reflective writings one may set some skilled observations of the world, as well as some very effective excursions into fantasy, with a good blend of dragons and science fiction. It is intriguing to note how young writers readily absorb both the traditional and the modern into their explorations. A very effective example of this is Saurava Sarkar's story, 'The End', where the Lord, alerted to

a slight disturbance in the Pool, removed 'the harmful particle' and 'crushed it beneath his heel'. That is the way the world ends.
JOHN HAMPSON

Education: a way ahead
Mary Warnock
Blackwell £5·75 hardback

In *Education: a Way Ahead* Mrs Warnock has laid down briefly, but very firmly, what she thinks education should be about and how it should be conducted. A certain amount of what she has to say is controversial. This is hardly surprising since she believes that education is associated with values and politics and for this reason it should be open to public scrutiny and debate.

One interesting aspect of the book is the way she suggests a new synthesis of the familiar dialectic arguments in which progressives have claimed that education should concentrate on the needs and happiness of children, while traditionalists have maintained that the first concern of schools should be to introduce children to the knowledge and skills valued and required by the adult world. At first sight Mrs Warnock, in the guise of a traditionalist, appears to have performed the familiar but perennially irritating philospher's trick of stealing her opponents' concepts and redefining them for the purpose of her own side. Thus, educational need, often understood to refer to children's present needs, is initially defined by Mrs Warnock as 'a need relative to the future of the child who has it'. However, as her argument develops she starts to introduce caveats and exceptions. She concedes for example that 'children, just as much as grown-ups, have different tastes and aptitudes', and that teachers should take account of these.

Much of the book is devoted to quite specific educational issues. Comprehensive schools are approved of, provided they are not too large, include sixth forms, cover a basic common curriculum, allow setting for particular subjects and older children, and offer some, but not too wide a, choice of, options. Good comprehensives, with some specialist help, are considered quite capable of meeting the needs of the ablest children. Moral education is mainly about behaviour, and to be effective depends on the policy of the head and the good example of teachers. Examinations are vigorously defended and a proposal, which merits further consideration, is made that a national test of minimum competence in basic subjects should be made in the third year of secondary schooling.

Mrs Warnock has written a book which is informed, committed and readable. Education could do much worse than follow the direction in which she points it. Of course not everyone would agree.
J. R. UNGOED-THOMAS

Music now: a guide to recent developments and current opportunities in music education
Dorothy Taylor
Open University Educational Enterprises £3·95 paperback

At a time when so many books on music education are tinged with doubt and even despair, it is refreshing to come across one bearing a message of cautious optimism. It may seem presumptuous in a mere 150 pages to tackle such a wide area as 'recent development and current opportunities', but the author shows much skill in identifying and placing in context the major trends and issues. Also, by the use of pertinent quotations from key publications and specific references to people, places and institutions, she engages her readers' continuing interest without risking superficiality.

An attractive feature of the book is its concern for both principle and practice; the author has clearly supplemented her more academic researches with personal consultation and direct observation. She relates curriculum innovation to the teachings of such authorities and Piaget, Dewey and Langer; she evaluates the work of Orff, Kodaly and Susuki both as theorists and as practitioners. She ponders upon the compensatory nature of music and its role within the total curriculum. Her chapter on 'Monitoring Achievement' includes a useful review of trends in external examinations in music – although it leaves the thorny question of universal pupil assessment unanswered. Opportunities for musicians in the field of higher and further education are summarized and there are interesting observations on the 'leisure industry' and the significance of 'pop'.

Looking ahead, Mrs Taylor forecasts a growing use for technology in teaching and a demand for more 'methods and guidelines'.

She feels that the 'search for creativity' may have absorbed 'a disproportionate amount of the timetable' and discerns a need for 'a sense of balance in the curriculum'. The appendices include 'Landmarks in Music Education' (1870 to the present day), a detailed list of 'Key Resources', a bibliography and an index.

PAT SALISBURY

The education of the future

Stephen Castles and Wiebke Wustenberg

Pluto Press £8·50 hardback, £3·95 paperback

This work is subtitled: 'An introduction to the theory and practice of socialist education' and it holds closely and economically to this belief. It starts with an historical survey of the antecedents of socialist educational thought, backed by a short appendix demonstrating the relationship between certain past economic and social arrangements and the systems of education which, the authors suggest, arose out of them.

This latter point is central to the main strategy of the book, namely, an attempt to apply Marx's views on education as a critique to various systems of education to try to determine their correctness in socialist terms, as perceived by the authors. The work is not sparing in its criticism of arrangements either side of the Iron Curtain. It notes that the liberating aspirations of early Soviet educationists such as Lunacharsky and N. K. Krupskaya gave way to intensive technical specialization during the Stalin era, not perhaps what Marx had in mind when he spoke of: 'producing fully developed human beings' – a quotation employed frequently in this book. Education in the GDR and China is also surveyed and occasionally censured by the authors. The crux of the matter is the interpretation of Marx's meaning of 'polytechnical education', the essence of which is to be found in the Geneva Resolution of 1866. This resolution is quoted at length by the authors, who are at pains to emphasize its three main elements: mental education, bodily education and technological training – the latter imparting: 'general principles of all processes of production . . . practical use and handling of elementary instruments of all trades'.

The authors find much to disturb them in Western education, although they also detect some encouraging developments upon which they hope teachers and others will build: the Tvind experiment in Denmark and the possibilities inherent in West German *Arbeitslehre* type developments.

For the most part the book is written in a clear and cogent style, not too trammelled with jargon, although some familiarity with Marxist history and philosophy would be of help to any reader whipped along at the unremitting speed of the opening section. The authors attempt to be fair but they cannot sustain the exercise, particularly in so brief a work. Their handling of current issues such as the 'Great Debate' is less than impartial to say the least: we are told that the APU was set up to 'monitor secondary schools'; that the Taylor Report 'proposed the inclusion of, among other things, industrialists' on governing bodies – omitting to mention parents, teachers and trade unionists. The book gives some practical advice to those wishing to change the system, although its mention of 'State curricula' making the going hard for polytechnical education can hardly refer to England and Wales.

If the authors had been less mesmerized by the machinations of an undefined 'ruling class' bending education for its sinister purposes, and more sensitively attuned to some of the debates and changes going on in our increasingly fluid society, then they might have struck more resonant chords. Many people (and not only 'industrialists') are concerned about the nature and relevance of current curricula, and wish to relate school work more precisely to the needs of a democratic and increasingly technological society.

Also, we are reminded not to make unrealistic demands of education: Marx noted as much in his *Theses on Feuerbach*, quoted by the authors. One does not change society by first changing people's characters, the main battles have to be fought elsewhere – education is an integral part of a much larger process and not a prelude to it. Nevertheless, Castles and Wustenberg raise some crucial questions, for example: How far can an education system help people to understand and to alter the economic, political and technological arrangements in which they find themselves? A considerable part of the current debate on the school curriculum is concerned with precisely such issues.

This book offers a useful summary of radical perspectives on education while raising matters that will concern most serious students of the educational process.

R. A. S. HENESSEY

Teaching library skills in schools
James E. Herring
NFER £3·75 paperback

In this useful book the author gives practical help to librarians, teacher-librarians and teachers about how to teach their pupils the skills they will need to find materials, (book and non-book) in the school library and how to use them effectively. These skills are identified under two headings – 'locational' and 'evaluative' – and their close relation to study skills is discussed.

There is advice about how to introduce pupils to the library and its organization, fiction and non-fiction, the classification scheme, the use of catalogues and indexes and reference material. An interesting suggestion is the use of such analogies as the telephone directory and the supermarket.

Throughout the book the author rightly stresses that library skills should not be taught in isolation, as an academic exercise, but in relation to what is being taught in various other subjects, and that the examples used by the librarian should relate to work being done by the pupils. It is important to enlist the cooperation of the rest of the staff and to make sure they know what skills are being taught.

While the bulk of the more formal library instruction will be given in the space of a term, it will need to be revised, reinforced and extended throughout a pupil's school life, particularly on a more individual basis. Instructions and guides, clearly and attractively displayed, can help.

To do this important work effectively, however, the librarian or teacher-librarian requires time and a library which is always available as a library; unfortunately, in too many of our schools this is still not possible.
JOHN WILKINSON

The language dimension
I. F. Turner and J. Whyte
The Northern Ireland Council for Educational Research £2·00 paperback
Starting School
Brian Jackson
Croom Helm £7·95 hardback

Both these books are concerned with disadvantaged children entering school. Any teacher encountering a growing diversity of cultures in the classroom would do well to read both, but would then wonder that the authors could differ so greatly in their research design and presentation of findings. Yet there might be some clarity of purpose and renewed determination to be gained from both books.

The Language Dimension is an account of the development and implementation of a language intervention programme for young disadvantaged boys in a large Belfast school. This small-scale research was tailored to the stated requirements of a particular school, teacher and class, and was dependent upon their cooperation. As such it was judged by the authors to be economic and effective. Its objectives are expressed in terms of three areas of language behaviour selected by the teacher as likely to give the children most help in their early school experience. Small groups of the children work daily with their teacher on materials related to their immediate experience and using a question/answer technique which is reminiscent of the old infant 'object' lesson. Care is taken to involve each child individually, to reinforce language already introduced and to assess progress weekly. Some disadvantages in the approach include the need for the teacher to repeat the session daily with several groups of children, thus occupying her for at least a quarter of the school day. It is questionable whether the continuous use of such a programme would be possible without classroom support. The project is unusual in its emphasis on the class teacher as principal agent, in the support afforded her daily in the classroom and in the selection of inexpensive materials that the authors considered would be available in most schools.

This sensitive approach to school-based research receives further strength from the continuous dialogue between teacher and researchers and from the frequent modifications made as a result of day-to-day experience. However, the reader must be prepared to elbow his way through the impersonal, rather repetitive style of the report to the appendices, where there are some examples of the material used and a lesson transcript.

Starting School could not present a greater contrast. Brian Jackson is noted for his ability to present educational ideas as matters for common sense. This report on six four-year-olds prior to and during their first term at school in Huddersfield is relaxed, perceptive and compelling.

The research was commissioned by the Social Science Research Council and the

Leverhulme Trust, but there is no hint of these institutions breathing over Mr Jackson's shoulder. His investigation into the backgrounds of six children from different cultures is described frankly. It includes informal visits to such cultural centres as the Final Day Pentecostal Tabernacle, a day nursery run by Italian nuns and the Jade Mountain Chinese food shop. In such a multicultural society, the research fellow became just another acceptable diversion and his involvement is reflected in the book.

Starting School emphasizes the benefit children's cultural diversity can bring to their education. There is a useful section headed 'Festival' giving religious and secular anniversaries that would provide significant seasonal themes for the class teacher.

The penultimate chapter makes a revealing, if laboured, probe into the cultural bias of the literature and visual presentations surrounding the children. The force of Mr Jackson's description left me with a strong desire to know how the six children fared after their first term. The final words of the book, spoken by the children's teacher, express the need for planned action – 'It's a battlefield!'

P. E. NORTH

Objective assessment by means of item banking (Schools Council Examination Bulletin 40)

John Dobby and Derek Duckworth

Evans/Methuen Educational £3·30 paperback

This concise and readable volume is to be welcomed as the latest in a series of publications, written over the last ten years by members of the staff of the NFER which describes the work on item banking carried out by the Foundation's Examinations and Test Research Unit.

After summarizing recent work on item banking and describing briefly the Rasch model of item analysis, the report goes on to give an account of an experiment to combine two separate collections of biology items into one bank by deriving statistics which were directly comparable from linking tests. The technicalities of this process and the extent to which it involved teachers of biology are clearly described. It is disappointing to read that when the new bank was ready to be used experimentally for forming tests suitable for pupils assessed under Mode III 'only three schools requested tests and only 40 pupils were able to take them'. An indication, perhaps, that many teachers still have considerable reservations about the practical applications of item banking.

The remaining two chapters consist of a theoretical study that aims to show how recent thinking on item banking and item scaling can alleviate some of the difficulties inherent in the large-scale measurement of educational attainment.

Despite its somewhat lop-sided structure (Chapter Three is longer than the other three chapters combined) the report has many virtues, not least its clarity and freedom from excessive jargon. Helpful references, both in the text and in the bibliography, will be welcomed by those who desire to read more widely on this subject.

JOHN GRAHAM

Colonial immigrants in a British city: a class analysis

John Rex and Sally Tomlinson, with the assistance of David Hearnden and Peter Ratcliffe

Routledge and Kegan Paul £10·50 hardback

This book is based on research carried out in an area of Birmingham. The research was concerned to discover to what extent, if at all, minority communities were being incorporated into the white working class. The data on employment, housing and education show signs that to some extent black people are moving into areas of housing and employment traditional to the white working class. However, the authors maintain that the long-term trends are for increased segregation of black and white rather than for assimilation or integration.

In education there is not the same separation, since all children of statutory school-age – black or white – must attend schools. However, the authors claim that because of a variety of factors, black children attend 'all-black' schools, are segregated, and receive 'different' schooling from white pupils. Clearly, there is some truth in this picture: some schools are mainly the province of 'black' pupils, and some schools in inner city areas experience difficulties that affect the quality of educational provision. However, to claim that black children in Britain get segregated schooling is seriously to exaggerate

the real position, and to undervalue the important work being done in some multi-racial schools.

There is a lot of real substance in this book. The data are interesting and important. The analysis of the position of a 'black underclass' is useful, and the indication of the important differences between British and American experiences of immigration is salutary. The book's most important message is that real and positive change can come only if the white majority is made less discriminatory and racist. Sadly, political leadership (local, national, or both) to influence this change is lacking, and the book shows a depressing decline in the quality of political leadership in the area of race and race relations.

In the end, it is depressing that the authors overstate their case. Always they opt for the gloomiest prognosis. They too often choose to quote the Marxist, Third World voices, and ignore the powerful conservative voices of Islam or Indian/East African entrepreneurism. It is puzzling too that although, rightly, great stress is laid on the future importance of multicultural education, no detailed mention is made of the DES commitment to this in Command Paper 7186 *The West Indian Community**, or of other important issues such as the ILEA'S policy statement on multicultural education.† There is some hope, and it emerges if sought, but it is too often rather gratuitously dismissed.

E. J. Bolton

Social and educational research in action: a book of readings

Michael Wilson (editor)

Longman/Open University Press £7·50 paperback

This is designed as a source book of readings in social science research, much though not all of it in the field of education. Three main approaches to research are covered – the statistically based survey, what may broadly be characterized as 'ethnographical' or interpretative research and the controlled experiment. The last, which features relatively little in the field of social science research, is represented by Milgram's somewhat bizarre experiment in the United States on the 'obedience levels' of the subjects (the well known 'electric shock' experiment). For the first, Wilson draws largely on Plowden – though curiously on the Report and the debate which followed its publication rather than the detailed survey findings. The second includes a study by Ball on abortion and by Lacey on the behaviour and attitudes of a group of pupils in a grammar school. Lacey's article differs from nearly all the rest of the book in being a retrospective account of the methodology of the study carried out in 1962 which was written (apparently) especially for this collection.

The purpose of the book is 'to show the social sciences in the process of contributing to our knowledge of significant social problems'. For this purpose the fact that most of the work referred to is at least ten or fifteen years old is perhaps no great disadvantage, though some more recent examples of work, particularly that straddling the survey and interpretative styles of evaluation, might have been illuminating. Any reviewer of an anthology will find himself at odds with its editor over the choice of material. I found it surprising that so much space was given over to material from the Plowden and Halsey (Educational Priority Area) Reports, which are widely and easily available, rather than to the less accessible research articles. It is odd too that some quite slight papers written by Acland for *New Society* should be deemed worthy of inclusion. But not only the students following the Open University course 'Research Methods in Education and the Social Sciences' (for whom the work was compiled) but also a wider readership will find much here to stimulate thought about the role of research in throwing light on social problems.

Brian Kay

Development of an open learning system for further education (Working Paper 15)

John Coffey

Council for Educational Technology £2·00 paperback

The title of this report refers to a course of study leading to a recognized qualification, in which the student, using specially prepared

* Home Office. *The West Indian Community*. Cmnd 7186. London: HM Stationery Office, 1978.

† 'Multi-ethnic Education'. A paper presented by the ILEA's schools' sub-committee and the further and higher education sub-committee to the ILEA's education committee, 8 November 1977.

course materials and usually working on his own, takes a significant part of the course at a distance from the base institution.

Some years ago, the Council for Educational Technology (CET) recognized the future potential of these alternative modes of study – many of them probably based on methods already existing in further and higher education institutions. Since then it has been involved in development work in this field in a variety of ways. One of these took the form of a collaborative effort with the Technician Education Council (TEC) and the Post Office (PO).

The TEC had declared its intention of providing for what it chose to call 'external students' in its 1974 policy statement:

> 'There will no doubt continue to be many potential students seeking technician education who cannot attend college regularly and the Council intends to provide adequately for their needs'.

At the same time the TEC gave some indication of how such provision might be made. In 1976 the PO put forward proposals for a correspondence course as a TEC unit of study – *Telecommunications System 1*. A course development team was established, and the CET provided a part-time professional adviser with special experience and knowledge of educational technology. Part One of the book is this adviser's report. It explains clearly and frankly the problems facing the team, the difficulties arising and the methods adopted to minimize or overcome these difficulties, such as a series of training workshops for the team members. These in-service courses covered course objectives, media, sequence and structure and assessment. Part One concludes with an analysis of the adviser's role, carried out by the author himself, and with advice for future course teams.

The CET also commissioned an independent person to evaluate the role of the educational technology adviser when his assignment to the course team had finally concluded. Part Two is the independent evaluator's report.

Once again a frank assessment is made of the adviser's role in the project and the special contribution he made: 'All members of the team attribute the overall success of the project to the personal skills he exercised'. This section of the book concludes with an attempt to define the role and the necessary qualifications of similar advisers in other project teams.

An additional assessment of the project, giving an account of how students used the course and their reactions to it, might well be a future postscript.

Working Paper 15 is one of the most readable and informative booklets in this series. It is a useful case study for departmental teams in HFE, and particularly helpful to academic staff who have special responsibility for educational technology and staff training in these institutions.

M. EDMUNDSON

Contributions to an educational technology: Vol 2

James Hartley and Ivor K. Davies (editors)
Kogan Page £10·00 hardback

This book is the sequel to a volume published in 1972. In the interim, educational technology has widened its scope considerably. Even ten years ago, there were few who felt able to define educational technology with confidence; the editors of this collection of papers admit even greater difficulty today. Much research has been undertaken into how human beings learn, and a wide range of practical experience has had a modifying effect on theory.

The book consists of some twenty-four papers grouped into three sections: 'Theoretical Developments', 'Procedural Techniques' and 'Applications'. Each section is introduced by a brief statement about each paper and how it relates to the whole. Two contrasting historical perspectives of educational technology are given, one as a prologue, the other as an epilogue, and throughout the book there is a liberal sprinkling of appropriate references to other work.

Educational technology has made many claims in the past about the contribution it can make to the processes of human learning, and its disciples have had to suffer many setbacks. Its relationships with other fields of educational endeavour have rarely been stable or very happy ones. This collection of recent papers should contribute to this search for an identity which, in any case, is becoming more widely accepted and appreciated. 'The time is now coming when educational technology should take its place as a specialized branch of educational research

and development, retaining its identity but cementing ties with other fields instead of rivalling them.'
M. EDMUNDSON

LEA advisers and the mechanisms of innovation
R. Bolan, G. Smith and H. Canter
NFER £7·95 paperback

This book is the report of a research project which attempted to study one part of the work of LEA advisers – their role as innovators – and to relate this role to their overall function. The report, however, contains far more information on the structure and function of advisory teams than it does on the work of the adviser as an innovator. This is understandable as the work of the LEA adviser is extremely varied and not well documented.

There are, however, some doubts about the overall validity of the information given on the work of advisers and advisory teams. First, in their introduction, the authors, point to the fact 'that the job specifications and functions of LEA advisers are numerous and varied, differing considerably from one LEA to another'. The sample used in the report is small (fourteen LEAs) and, again, as the authors admit, not representative. These two factors must make one wonder how far the conclusions can be valid for all LEAs. Second, since the research was carried out (from 1973 to 1975) there have been major changes in the education scene that have affected the work and responsibilities of the advisory service. Central Government has begun to take more active interest in the curriculum (e.g. the 1977 Green Paper* and Circular 14/77†), the realization that the number of pupils is falling has led to studies of the relationship between the overall curriculum and the resources (mainly staffing) needed to maintain it, the publication of HM Inspectorate's *Curriculum 11–16*‡ and, not least, the effect of financial restraint on the size of LEA advisory teams. All of these have changed the framework in which this report must be viewed.

There is a section on contacts with HM Inspectorate which is anecdotal and trivial and, more importantly, shows a misunderstanding of their role. This impression, again, is probably due to the limitations of the sample.

Despite these criticisms, the report does give something of the flavour and range of an LEA adviser's work which is not available elsewhere, but whether this is worth £7·95 is another matter.
D. G. LAMBERT

Who cares? A new deal for mothers and their small children
Penelope Leach
Penguin £0·75 paperback

The author of *Baby and Child* writes with anger as she sees young children's need for individual mothering being undermined by a society that confuses women's lib with mothers' lib. Penelope Leach calculates that only 5·73 per cent of under fives have mothers working thirty or more hours a week, and she believes that if the media make it 'clearer to the general public that most mothers *do* in fact take care of their own children and that they are right to do so, the working mother image would decline in glamour and come to be seen for what it really is: a necessity for some and a dicey option for others'.

She states unequivocally that for children under three there should be no form of socially approved *group*-care, and hits hard at a wide range of 'experts' who don't plan on the assumption that 'while child-care is for parents, parent-care is for everyone'.

Believing that parents need to be helped through, rather than out of, their responsibilities, she gives a clear picture of what is known of babies' emotional and social development and its relevance to intellectual functioning. True to her abhorrence of the case-work approach to parents, she writes in such a way that they will feel stronger and better equipped to cope for themselves, rather than feel diminished by her expertise.

This book challenges our honesty and professional and group loyalties, for its underlying message is that 'babies and young children's development depends on their

* Secretary of State for Education and Science and Secretary of State for Wales. *Education in Schools*. A Consultative Document. Cmnd 6869. London: HM Stationery Office, 1977.
† Department of Education and Science and the Welsh Office. *Local education authority arrangements for the school curriculum*. Circular 14/77.
‡ HM Inspectorate *Curriculum 11–16*. Working papers by HM Inspectorate: a contribution to current debate. London: HM Stationery Office, 1977.

happiness and . . . their happiness depends on their "special" adults', coupled with 'somehow society has to give people back their confidence in being able to manage being people for themselves amid the actual reality of their own circumstances'.

BRENDA CROWE
Formerly National Adviser to the Pre-School Playgroups Association

ADDITIONAL BOOKS RECEIVED

ABERCROMBIE, M. L. J. *Aims and techniques of group teaching (fourth edition).* Society for Research into Higher Education, £4·20 (members £3·15).

ADVISORY COUNCIL FOR ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION. *Towards continuing education. A discussion paper.* ACACE, free.

APPIGNANESI, RICHARD (text) and OSCAR ZARATE (illustrations). *Freud for beginners.* Writers and Readers, £3·95.

BEVERIDGE, W. T. and J. HAY. *Room utilisation in educational institutions.* HMSO, £2·25.

BRAZELTON, T. BERRY. *Toddlers and parents.* Penguin, £1·25.

BRENT, ALLEN. *Philosophical foundations for the curriculum.* Allen and Unwin, £7·50 (£3·50 paperback).

BRISTOL WOMEN'S STUDY GROUP (editors). *Half the sky. An introduction to women's studies.* Virago, £9·50 (£3·95 paperback).

BROADY, MAURICE (editor). *Tomorrow's community: the development of neighbourhood organizations.* Bedford Square Press, £2·95 (£3·20 by post).

CARVER, VIDA and MICHAEL ROODA. *Disability and the environment.* Elek, £4·95.

CENTRE FOR INFORMATION ON LANGUAGE TEACHING AND RESEARCH. *Teaching modern languages.* National Book League, £1·15 (members £0·85).

CLARKE, MICHAEL. *Resources for teaching international relations.* G. W. and A. Hesketh, £1·85.

CLARKE, MICHAEL. *Simulations in the study of international relations.* G. W. and A. Hesketh, £9·50 (£5·95 paperback).

CLEZY, GILLIAN. *Modification of the mother-child interchange in language, speech and hearing.* Arnold, £7·50.

COOPER, K. J. and T. P. GREENWOOD. *Technician fabrication and welding 1.* Cassell, £3·95.

COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY. *The contribution of educational technology to higher education in the 1990s.* CET, free.

EVANS, BYRON. *Gotama the Indian Prince.* Galliard (Stainer and Bell Ltd), £1·50.

EVANS, BYRON. *Jeshua in an occupied country.* Galliard (Stainer and Bell Ltd.), £1·50.

EVANS, BYRON. *Muhammad the Arab boy.* Galliard (Stainer and Bell Ltd), £1·50.

FLUDE, RAY and ALLEN PARROTT. *Education and the challenge of change. A recurrent education strategy for Britain.* The Open University Press, £1·95.

FRANCIS, HAZEL. *Language in teaching and learning.* Allen and Unwin, £5·50 (£2·50 paperback).

GARRETT, RICHARD. *In the nick of time.* Piccolo, £0·75.

GILLHAM, BILL. *The first words language programme.* Allen and Unwin, £6·00 (£2·95 paperback).

HARRIS, ALBERT J. and EDWARD R. SIPAY. *How to teach reading: a competency-based program.* Longman, £9·95.

HOLMES, BRIAN. *Ivory towers, the glass bead game and open societies. The social functions of comparative education.* University of London, Institute of Education, £0.50.

JOHNSON, BARBARA. *Reading appraisal guide.* Australian Council for Educational Research, 4·50 Aust. dollars.

LATCHEM, C. R. *An educational development system for Northern Ireland: a study of expressed needs, opinions, research studies and recommendations.* CET, £3·50.

MALEY, ALAN and ALAN DUFF. *Sounds intriguing.* Cambridge University Press, £2·95 (cassette £5·50).

MITTLER, PETER. *Teaching children with severe learning difficulties.* Weald Publishing Agency, £2·50.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH. *The teaching of English in multicultural Britain.* NATE, free.

NATIONAL BOOK LEAGUE. *Stories and settings: Americas, Caribbean, Arctic and Antarctic. A handbook for teachers and librarians.* National Book League, £0·65.

NATIONAL EXTENSION COLLEGE. *Guide to courses 1979/80.* National Extension College, free.

NAUMAN, ST ELMO JR. *Dictionary of Asian philosophies.* Routledge and Kegan Paul, £7·50 (£4·25 paperback).

NEWSON, JOHN and ELIZABETH NEWSON. *Toys and playthings in development and remediation.* Penguin, £1·50.

NATIONAL FOUNDATION FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH. *Register of educational research in the United Kingdom.* NFER, £25·00.

PASSMORE, S. M. (editor). *The home food adviser No 2.* Long Ashton Research Station, Bristol £0·50.

PENNEY, GEORGE. *A career in computing.* Input Two-Nine, £4·95 (£3·50 paperback).

PICKARD, EILEEN. *The development of creative ability.* NFER, £7·50.

ROGERS, RICK. *Schools under threat: a handbook on closures.* Advisory Centre for Education, £1·50.

RUTTER, MICHAEL, BARBARA MAUGHAN, PETER MORTIMORE and JANET OUSTON. *Fifteen thousand hours: secondary schools and their effects on children.* Open Books, £7·50 (£3·50 paperback).

SCHOOL MATHEMATICS PROJECT. *Calculator supplement by topics.* Cambridge University Press, £0·65.

SCHOOL MATHEMATICS PROJECT. *Calculator supplement to books X, Y and Z.* Cambridge University Press, £0·65.

SCHOOL MATHEMATICS PROJECT. *Discover how to use your electronic calculator.* Cambridge University Press, £0·65.

SCHOOL MATHEMATICS PROJECT. *Growth and decay: financial and other applications.* Cambridge University Press, £0·55.

SCHOOL MATHEMATICS PROJECT. *Sequences and iterative processes.* Cambridge University Press, £0·65.

SCHOOL MATHEMATICS PROJECT. *Teacher's guide for the SMP calculator series.* Cambridge University Press, £1·95.

SONSTEGARD, MANFORD, ANNETTE SHUCK and NEIL R. BEATTIE. *Living in harmony with our children.* V. Ross-Weir, 16 Brook End, Weston Turville, Aylesbury, Bucks HP22 5RF, £1·00.

SPORTS COUNCIL AND DISABILITIES STUDY UNIT. *Sports centres and the disabled. An access guide to sports centres in England.* The Royal Association for Disability and Rehabilitation, £0·75.

STANDING CONFERENCE OF PRINCIPALS AND DIRECTORS OF COLLEGES AND INSTITUTES IN HIGHER EDUCATION. *The Colleges and Institutes of Higher Education 1979 guide.* Standing Conference of Principals and Directors of Colleges and Institutes in Higher Education, £0·60.

STONES, EDGAR (editor). *British journal of teacher education.* Methuen, £6·00.

TEATHER, DAVID C. B. *Staff development in higher education: an international review and bibliography.* Kogan Page, £12·00.

THOMPSON, H. A. *Know your tables and basic arithmetic (workbook).* Heinemann Educational Books, £0·95.

THOMPSON, H. A. *Know your tables and basic arithmetic (handbook for parents and teachers).* Heinemann Educational Books, £1·50.

TUNLEY, PHILIP, TONY TRAVERS AND JOHN PRATT. *Depriving the deprived. A study of finance, educational provision and deprivation in a London borough.* Kogan Page, £4·95.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON. *General Certificate of Education examination – regulations and syllabuses June 1981 and January 1982.* University of London, £1·80.

WILSON, AMRIT. *Asian women speak out: a reader.* National Extension College, £0·80.

WORLD GOVERNMENT OF THE AGE OF ENLIGHTENMENT, MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND ENLIGHTENMENT. *Making education ideal through the Transcendental Meditation programme and the science of creative intelligence.* World Government of the Age of Enlightenment, free.

Correction

We apologise to readers for an error in the winter 1979 issue of *Trends*. On page 40, line 38, the date should read 1979, not 1970.

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